The Education Digest

50 CENTS A COPY, $4 A YEAR - PUBLISHED AT ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

CONTENTS

Get the Facts	Progressive Education	1
Freedom Isn't "Academic"	Illinois Education	5
Core Curriculum	School Life	8
A Sound Design for Sex Education	National Parent-Teacher	11
Trends in School Building Design	Minnesota Journal of Education	14
In-School Work Experience	Business Education Forum	16
Critical Problems in the Administration of Student Activities	The Bulletin of the NASSP	18
The High Price of Objectivity	The Clearing House	22
A Safety Program for the High School	The Journal of Educational Sociology	25
Prospective Teachers Learn Teamwork in College	Childhood Education	28
Redefining the Doctrine of Usage	Michigan Education Journal	30
The Overeducated Parent	High Points	32
Facts Sometimes Belie Attacks	Ohio Schools	36
Developing Problem-Solving Skills in Adolescents	The High School Journal	39
Present Trends in Philippine Education	The News Bulletin	42
What Mathematics Shall We Teach in the Fourth Year of High School?	The Mathematics Teacher	44
Correlations Between Reading Factors and IQ	School and Society	47
Conservation Begins in the Elementary School	NEA Journal	48
With Education in Washington		50
Educational News		54
New Educational Materials		58
Index to Volume XVII		61

Volume XVII — May, 1952 — Number 9

The Education Digest Staff

Lawrence W. Prakken, Editor and Publisher
Emmett A. Dufva, Assistant Editor
Marguerite D. Turner, Assistant Editor
Warren R. Good, Associate Editor
Ruth L. Striffler, Circulation Manager
T. Todd Jones, Advertising Manager

Editorial Advisory Board

Lyle W. Ashby, Assistant Secretary for Professional Relations, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.
Samuel M. Brownell, Professor of Educational Administration, Yale University, and President, State Teachers College, New Haven, Conn.
Clyde A. Erwin, North Carolina State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Raleigh
C. C. Goldring, Superintendent of Schools, Toronto, Ontario, Canada
Raymond W. Gregory, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
Morris Meister, Principal, High School of Science, Bronx, New York City
Ernest O. Melby, Dean, School of Education, New York University, New York City
Kenneth E. Oberholtzer, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado
Willard C. Olson, Dean, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Paul A. Rehmus, Superintendent of Schools, Portland, Oregon
Ruth Strang, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City
C. C. Trillingham, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles County, California
Ralph W. Tyler, Dean, Division of the Social Sciences, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois
Benjamin C. Willis, Superintendent of Schools, Buffalo, N. Y.
Paul A. Witty, Professor of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois

Subscription price, $4.00 a year; 2 years, $7.00; 3 years, $10.00 (Foreign, $4.50 a year); single copies, 50c. Published monthly, September through May. Address The Education Digest, 330 South State St., Ann Arbor, Michigan.

MEMBER

EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

Entered as second-class matter November 4, 1935, at the post office at Ann Arbor, Michigan, under the Act of March 3, 1879. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of The Education Digest are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—MacIntyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y. Lexington 2-8998. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 53 West Jackson Blvd., Suite 447, Chicago, Ill.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1952 by Laurence W. Prakken

Volume XVII | MAY, 1952 | Number 9

Both Ours and the Other Fellow's!

Get the Facts

WILLIAM H. BURTON

In Progressive Education

THE slogan, "Let's look at the record," made famous by a political leader of yesteryear may well be adopted by an educational profession under attack. The record will supply facts, both ours and those of our opponents. Refusal to face the facts, avoiding or sidestepping them, or worse, replying with name-calling, plays squarely into the hands of those who would destroy the greatest public educational system in the world. Standing on the facts, refusing to be led off into arguments over vague generalizations and personal opinion, is the only safe and valid defense for schoolmen. More than defense is involved. Facts also supply the basis for aggressive extension and improvement of the educational system of the United States.

A few years ago schoolmen noted here and there sly, underhanded attacks on teachers, textbooks, and school systems, and on individual scholars among the leadership. These attacks were wholly different in nature from the honest, sincere criticisms from parents and taxpayers which are a desirable feature of life in a free democratic society.

William H. Burton is Director of Apprenticeship at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Reported from Progressive Education, *XXIX (January, 1952), 82–90.*

These sincere criticisms of honest men we can understand and meet. Now we see an intensification of the typical criticisms by parents, plus a widespread, well organized, well financed series of destructive attacks on all phases of public education. What are the purposes of these attacks? Who finances them? Why? These are the questions the citizens must ask. It is possible for any literate citizen who has access to a library to look at the record and get the facts—both ours and the other fellows.

Justified criticisms of the schools, of teachers, texts, and results—those based on the facts—are definite aids to the improvement of education. They have been going on for centuries as the record will show. Today, they spring, not from any new thing peculiar to the schools, but from deep-seated rea-

sons connected with the current social scene. The observable social upheaval, the uncertainty about the future, the battle for men's minds now being waged by protagonists of conflicting ideologies, all serve to bring doubt and fear. The citizen sees familiar political, economic, and social processes changing. The very processes of government, of production and distribution of goods, the relation between worker and employer, the accepted social conventions, all seem to be changing. The ancient institution of private property is attacked and defended. The methods of distributing produced wealth are under question. All kinds of new social controls appear.

Which are desirable; which are evil? The citizen does not know. Periods of crisis have always produced increased criticism of all social institutions, schools, churches, forms of government, even the administration of justice. The citizen quite understandably wishes to hold on to the known, the familiar, the comforting thing he understands. Let us return to the "old-time religion" in church; return to laissez-faire conceptions of the free market and uncontrolled business enterprise; and in the schools, "back to the fundamentals."

Parents are concerned for their children. Will the schooling they are getting equip them adequately to earn a living in this uncertain world? Will it prepare them to stand firm in the protection and extension of the values of democracy in the political, economic, and social orders? The parent meets these problems at the point where he sees them, understands them, has direct contact—namely, in the local school as it deals with his children.

Education is both a product of, and an instrument of, a culture. Cultural changes are inevitable and education changes also, aiding in advancing and in stabilizing the culture. An education which fails to keep pace with, and to sense the changing and emerging aspects of the culture, and fails to note the "signs of the times," must inevitably fail to vitalize its society, and may fail to perpetuate its civilization.

Most of the criticisms of education are not new, not coincident with the emergence of "progressive education" or modern methods. The general line of criticism holds that (*a*) the three R's are omitted or neglected; children cannot read, write legibly, spell, or compute; (*b*) discipline is not enforced; (*c*) fads and frills abound; (*d*) money is wasted. Charges of subversion and communism are new, but similar attacks, in the language of other times, are to be found in the record.

The general criticisms above are flatly contradicted by an overwhelming volume of facts in the record. Any interested citizen can step into any professional library and read the facts. Over 275 separate studies are available in magazine articles, in master's and doctoral theses.

The schools are teaching the three R's today far more efficiently than

ever before in history. On no other single criticism of the schools is the evidence as valid and comprehensive and conclusive. The children, generally, have far greater skill than their parents and forebears. Modern methods are measurably superior to those used formerly, or "in my day."

The modern or progressive school is said to be neglectful of discipline, and to be characterized by extremely disorderly classrooms. Discipline is not neglected in the modern school, but a very different type of discipline has been developed. The modern school rejects the theory of discipline as the blind obedience and quiet imposed in authoritarian fashion by teacher dictators.

The discipline of democracy is selfdiscipline, the acceptance of responsibility, the development of personal reliability and integrity. Children must learn to develop self-control and responsibility which are democratic virtues. They learn to participate in setting up authority and rules—this is the method of democracy. Ample research is available in any college library showing the effects of domination and dictatorship in the classroom. Frustration and aggression are always present. Integrative behavior and desirable maturity of personality grow under democratic discipline.

The historical record concerning "fads and frills" is exceptionally interesting and enlightening. Each age has had its "fads and frills." The first school subject to be vigorously attacked as a useless fad and waste of money was, of all things, *reading!* When introduced approximately at the end of the first quarter of the 17th century, objections from public leaders were widespread. *Arithmetic* was at one time attacked. So it runs, home economics, physical education, health, music, art, all were fads in their day. Now it is the "social studies" and "education for life adjustment." Useless materials *have* appeared from time to time but have not survived. They were fads. Condemnation arises as it always does against the new and unfamiliar, and against the cost.

A pamphlet, published by one of the organizations attacking the schools, states in the title that progressive schools are breeders of delinquency. The pamphlet does not contain a single, solitary fact, nor any chain of reasoning to support the charge. But facts are available. A number of studies show that school pressures do cause delinquency, one study showing that delinquency rose when school opened in the fall, and dropped with the close of school in summer. But every single fact so far developed shows that it is the formal traditional school, not the progressive school, that causes the delinquency!

Criticisms of results and discipline, like the other criticisms mentioned here, have deep-seated social and psychological causes, and are not usually based on facts about schooling. Was schooling so much better "in my day"? Or could this be nostalgic longing by adults for return to "the good old days"—

which never existed in the first place!

The public and many schoolmen will more properly orient these criticisms if it is realized that exactly similar criticisms and demands for "return to former methods" have appeared continuous for *thousands* of years. A clay tablet of great antiquity records the lament of a merchant whose son has come from school into the shop. Alas, the boy cannot keep the money and accounts straight, cannot write his hieroglyphics legibly, cannot deal with customers. The money spent on his schooling has been wasted! Confucius made statements about the schools of his day which are exactly duplicated today from Maine to California. Socrates expressed the same ideas, as did William Penn in more recent times! Let's look at the record! How far back do they wish us to go? No matter how far back, the same criticisms appear!

What to do about the attacks?

1. Answer all criticisms with facts. Keep presenting the evidence; the libraries are full of it. Insist on distribution and public discussion of the facts. The facts both on the criticism and on those making the criticism should be presented.

2. Refuse to be stampeded into hasty and ill-considered comment or action.

3. Admit and take action for correction of any inefficiency or weakness which fact-finding may reveal.

4. Stand firm and fight back when inquiry reveals that criticism is not justified. Emotional attacks and those designed to preserve the status quo are rarely based on facts.

5. Work for a true community school system. The schools belong to the community. Schoolmen are the trustees in charge of operation and not the proprietors. Far more than a public-relations program is implied here. The attackers currently state that schoolmen deny parents the right to discuss, to question, to participate. The literature of education abounds in statements flatly contradictory to this. The lay public is not only invited by professional educators, it is strongly urged to participate.

6. Develop the use of group processes widely, especially for community meetings.

7. Move toward great and real reforms in teacher education, and in programs of in-service growth and development.

Members of the teaching profession who have not kept up with events, who are unaware of the shaping issues of the day, who are even unaware of the professional literature, often support the claims of those who attack the schools. A considerable number of school workers have no knowledge of the basis for modern curriculums and instructional processes, and worse, no knowledge of the results achieved.

8. Explain everything, working constantly for complete understanding by public and professional staff as to what is going on and the reason for the procedures. •

—But in the Interest of Society

Freedom Isn't "Academic"

CHARLES E. HOWELL

In Illinois Education

FREEDOM, like other values, has no existence in isolation. It is purposive, definitely related to other values, and not susceptible to understanding except in that framework. In many, if not most, of the discussions of the place of so-called "academic" freedom in our society, certain basic factors seem frequently to be overlooked.

Whatever freedom the teacher has in the classroom, or, for that matter, whatever freedom the minister has in his pulpit, or the editor in his newspaper, is not a vested right for him, but is given to him in the interests of a democratic society as a whole.

A democratic society, almost by definition, believes in the perfectibility of society and of the individual within that society. It is almost an axiom that such a concept depends on the free interchange of ideas, the sorting out of those things which seem to be good, within the framework of the accepted standards of the society, and the rejection of those things which do not fit.

Our democracy could not long survive without such an interchange, because the limitations which are placed on the interplay of *any* ideas inevitably spread to include limitations on the interplay of *all* ideas.

If the children in our schools, or our citizens in their adult lives, are to be subjected only to those ideas with which someone agrees, our society is certain to become the image of the kind of society which that someone, whoever he may be, desires. Not only can we not readily combat ideas about which we know nothing, but we cannot accept those ideas which can be demonstrated to be good, if we are not to be allowed to discuss any ideas except those which relate to things as they are.

Charles E. Howell is a member of the Department of Social Science at Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb. Reported from Illinois Education, *XL (February, 1952), 206–08.*

It is rather obvious that the controversy over whether the teacher should be allowed to express the truth as he sees it is limited to certain fields in the curriculum as a whole. There is no attempt, *at the present time,* to deny to him the right to say what he thinks in the field of the aesthetic, the abstract, or, in most instances, the classical. Nor is there a great deal of effort to deny him freedom of thought in the technical fields.

It is in the areas where basic principles are involved, where

vested interests are concerned, that there is an effort to see to it that the teacher should not have the right of free expression, even if the ideas as expressed are advanced in accordance with the methods set forth in our basic law governing freedom of speech.

Not only is free expression sometimes denied to the teacher in the classroom, but whole curriculums are sometimes constructed with an eye to avoiding those topics which may be distasteful to some people. Such curricular practices are as much a denial of freedom, insofar as the child is concerned, as is infringement of the freedom of the teacher to express his ideas on subjects which are included in the curriculum.

It needs to be emphasized again and again that teaching about something does not mean advocacy of that something—that a student can learn about communism or fascism, or any other "ism," and thereby come to have a detestation for it—and a fear of it—that he could never have if he remained in ignorance of it.

Education, in a free society, must be based on a rational rather than an emotional approach—and rationalism implies knowledge.

It should be clear, altho very frequently it is not, that the freedom to express an opinion in the classroom, or anywhere else, does not include the right to ignore evidence and arguments contrary to the viewpoint of the person expressing the opinion. It does not include the right to inflict opinions on a student—but it does imply that there should be an honest study of the subject. It does not imply that the teacher should use the right of free expression to further any religious, social, economic, or political cause in which he may happen to believe. It does imply that he should be sincere, fair, and deal with the problem with full knowledge of the subject.

It should also be evident—at least it is to the writer—that any individual, be he teacher, preacher, editor, or someone else, who is dedicated to the overthrow of the form of government under which we live must not be allowed to claim the privileges of a free man. He is not a free man since he is subject to the orders of some other person. He wants to do away with the very rights under which he claims the right to speak. And such actions cannot be tolerated.

At the same time, the fact that some individual claims that some idea is communistic or fascistic does not make it so. The position of the NEA in this regard is clear—that the limit of freedom is reached when someone advocates change by any other methods than those permitted by and protected by the Constitution of the United States or those of the several states.

In the entire discussion of the problem of "academic" freedom, we are most likely to overlook two areas of inquiry. One, and the less important of the two, is that the freedom to speak carries with it

the freedom to speak with responsibility and knowledge. But it is the other point which is of most concern to us. That is the principle that the freedom to teach carries with it the concomitant right of the freedom to learn.

We are engaged in our schools in developing citizens of a dynamic democratic society—citizens who will go forth into a world which is beset with problems of all kinds, and who are going to be called on to solve those problems as free men and women. We need to realize that in a democratic society such as ours there are differences of opinion as to how our goals may best be achieved. We need to realize that, in many instances, a change proposed by anyone is opposed to the personal interests of someone else. We have solved many problems in the past on which there were sharp divergences of opinion—and we will continue to solve many more if we can express our ideas in words which can permit of compromise, within the framework of our basic laws.

We need to take a positive view of the whole question of "academic" freedom—as indeed we must of any other freedom. Within the limits set above, namely that we should not permit anyone dedicated to the overthrow of our form of government to speak freely, we must realize that we advance by the expression of ideas. We must realize that the child has the freedom to learn. We must in the final analysis, realize that "academic" freedom is not "academic" at all—it is freedom compatible with the very essence of that way of life which we call democracy.

The question of "academic" freedom is not a new one—nor is it an isolated one. It has its roots in our history and in our basic philosophy. It has taken on new meanings with each generation, manifested itself in new ways, and sometimes with new significance. But it is one of those things which "we the people" have woven into the very fabric of our society. It must be limited only in regard to those who would destroy it.

It is necessary to keep in mind that he who would limit discussion in any other respect is guilty of infringement of the very rights which he claims to be trying to protect. We cannot keep our society as it is by limiting this freedom of discussion because the process of limitation in itself is an entering wedge to destruction of the democratic ideal. A weakening of one link is the weakening of the whole chain. And "academic" freedom is indeed an important link. •

"THE Communist Party imposes a discipline and thought control which are the very antithesis of academic freedom and which are inconsistent with (members) being good teachers."—*David I. Ashe,* labor arbitrator and former president, New York United Parents Association, before the American Civil Liberties Union.

Why and What?

Core Curriculum

GRACE S. WRIGHT

In School Life

LIKE many terms used in education "core curriculum" has no precise definition. Writers in the field of curriculum usually describe it in terms of its characteristics. Basically it refers to a course in the common learnings which is designed to provide learning experiences needed by all youth. In this sense it borrows from the original use of the term when the required or basic subjects in a school's curriculum were referred to as core subjects.

In addition to the "needed-by-all" concept, the core is generally recognized as having a distinct pattern or organization. The time given to it is longer than that given to a single subject. A core class usually meets for a double period; in some instances three or four periods are included in the "block." The core is not an added course, but replaces other subjects, subjects which cut across major areas of the curriculum. In more than 90 percent of the cases these subjects are English and social studies, or English and social studies in combination with one or more other subjects such as science, mathematics, health, or art. Nearly always one teacher teaches this block class.

Why the block class? It provides for cooperative problem solving in areas of pupil needs and interests, and thus gives practice in democratic living. It facilitates a relatedness in learning experiences. It makes possible an improved guidance and counseling program at the classroom level. In the junior-high school, it makes the transition from elementary school less abrupt. The core teacher is a substitute for the single teacher the pupil was accustomed to having through grade six.

Grace S. Wright is Research Assistant in Secondary Education, Division of State and Local School Systems, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. Reported from School Life, *XXXIV (February, 1952), 71, 75–76.*

In the block class, pupils have time for practicing the techniques of group problem-solving, techniques which they will need and will be able to use all through their lives. The core concept requires that the problems on which they work will be those which they and society believe are important to them at their developmental level.

Since more than one subject area is included in the core block, problems may cut across subject areas, in fact they disregard subject lines. Oftentimes the work of other teachers is correlated with the problem unit of the block class. Hence there

will be a relatedness in learning not often found in separate subject classes where each course is an entity in itself, as in the home economics courses of many schools which are still merely cooking and sewing.

But is a block class always a core? The answer is "No." The block pattern of organization described makes it a core-type class, but not a core, according to criterions of the experts. Many block classes represent merely an attempt at unification of two or more subjects.

Unified-studies classes are but one step in the direction of core. They accept only part of the basic philosophy. Block classes which are core go further; they recognize the importance to youth of acquiring skill in democratic living through actually practicing it in the classroom. Core issues may be topics to find out about; ideally they are problems to be solved.

Problems grow out of the personal, social, or civic needs of youth. Problem-solving techniques are used. Working in groups and in committees is common practice. Activities are so varied that each member of a class, whatever his level of ability, will be able to participate and to feel that he is making a contribution. The core class may include activities often considered extracurricular.

Pupil-teacher planning is a significant aspect of method. The extent of cooperative planning, or participation of pupils in planning, varies. In some schools there are planned curriculum guides or resource units. Scope and sometimes sequence have been predetermined. Teacher-pupil planning is then confined to activities within a unit. In other schools, joint planning begins with the selection of the unit, continues through the formulation of the objectives or goals and the activities which will achieve them, and ends with the evaluation of accomplishment of the class and its individual members.

The core makes use of no single textbook, but a number of different books and many different kinds of reference materials, some of which are available in the classroom and others in the central library. Fugitive materials are important. Many libraries, and even classrooms, have extensive clipping files. Pupils themselves search for pertinent materials. Reading, however, is only one type of activity. Excursions into the community, talking with people who "know," demonstrations by community members or by a committee of pupils, construction or preparation of material for a culminating activity, use of visual aids —all of these have a large share in the "how" of learning.

To discover the extent to which schools which have a core-type organization actually digress from the traditional content and method, was the important purpose of a questionnaire sent out by the Office of Education during the school year 1950-51 to principals of 519 secondary schools having core-type programs. They were asked to check

the description of the program which most fitted the type of program in their schools.

A, briefly, was described in the questionnaire as the type in which each subject retains its identity, a correlation rather than a fusion of, for example, American literature and American history. In *B* the subject lines are broken down, subjects are fused into a unified whole around a central theme. "Our American Heritage" may be the central theme for a core unifying American history and literature, and possibly art and music. In *C* the subjects are brought in only as needed. The core consists of a number of broad preplanned problems as would be related to such a theme as "Personal-Social Relations." In *D,* also, subjects are brought in only as needed. But there are no predetermined problem areas to be studied. Pupils and teacher are free to select problems on which they wish to work. According to the interpretations of core given by most writers in the field, *A* and *B* are core-type, but not true core, while types *C* and *D* meet the criterions for core—being pupil- instead of subject-centered.

While a total of 222 schools, or 42.8 percent of the returns received, report *C* or *D* type cores in one or more classes, types *A* and *B* still predominate. It is fairly common to find two or more types operating in a single school. Do the schools plan to change from the type of core they are now using to another type? Most do not, but when a change is indicated it is in the direction of progress toward a more advanced type of program.

There are many reasons why core-type programs are found twice as often as are true core. Most of them can be summed up by the word *insecurity*: insecurity on the part of teachers, administrators, parents, and even pupils—insecurity that comes when something untried replaces something long used.

It is widely recognized that core teaching is much more difficult than traditional subject teaching—teachers with special qualifications are needed. More important than ever is the teacher who likes boys and girls, who is interested in teaching boys and girls rather than subject matter.

Actual in-service training for core teaching, however, is several steps beyond where the school should begin. The principal should first be assured of the consent of his entire staff, and the active interest of at least two or three teachers. Drafting teachers is fatal to the success of a core program. Also, the administrator has a public-relations job to do, for in many situations it is equally fatal to install the program without the full understanding and consent of those whose children are to be served. A gradual or broken-front approach to core such as is represented by a unified studies or core-type course avoids some of the pitfalls that may occur when a school attempts to launch a full-fledged core curriculum before it is fully prepared. •

Schools Have a Responsibility

A Sound Design for Sex Education

MILTON I. LEVINE

In National Parent-Teacher

THE problems of sex education are extremely complicated, not only because it varies greatly at different age levels but because most of us who are parents today have been brought up in such a way that we feel hesitant and uncomfortable in dealing with it. It is this difficulty that has resulted in discussions of the wisdom of sex education in our schools.

An attempt to outline these complexities through the various stages of child development may be illuminating. Even before the child is able to speak he learns that the genital area is "different." He discovers his genital organs and is checked by his parents when he attempts to investigate them. Episodes occur during the toilet-training period.

But it is between the ages of three and six that a youngster will usually ask his first direct questions about sex. The manner in which they are answered is important in determining sound attitudes toward sex and also in determining whether the child will continue to turn to his parents for sex information or will seek it elsewhere.

In dealing with the sex questions of children under six, there are four cardinal principles to be observed: (1) Always use the correct term. (2) Always tell the truth. (3) Answer only as much as the child requests and no more. (4) Never put off answering a question.

Milton I. Levine, M.D., is Assistant Professor of Pediatrics at Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., and consulting pediatrician for the New York City Health Department. He and his wife are co-authors of two books in this field, The Wonder of Life *and* A Baby is Born. *Reported from* National Parent-Teacher, *XLVI (March, 1952), 7–9, 40.*

Between three and six years of age all children are interested not only in birth and reproduction but in their own sexual nature. They are likely to examine and play with their genital organs. This is normal, but it often brings a scolding or punishment and therefore gives the child a sense of guilt that is unnecessary and may do harm. Contrary to widespread belief this infantile practice will not damage the child either in body or in mind.

From six to 11 or thereabouts the youngster's sex interests are considerably diminished. Boys have a tendency to play with boys, girls with girls; interest in the opposite sex is at a minimum. Solitary sex play is much less frequent except in children who are emotionally upset.

Children will continue to ask

questions, however, if they have previously found that their parents are ready and willing to answer. Discussions at this age level can be fuller, and if parents find a subject difficult to handle there are well-written, well-illustrated books that may be read with the child.

Girls approaching puberty should be told about menstruation as a sign of growing up and also as the sign of a healthy body. They should know what menstruation means: that each month a fresh supply of blood carrying food for a possible new baby is brought to the uterus. If the egg is not fertilized, there is no further need for this blood and it is cast out. And next month a new supply of fresh blood is ready.

During the period just before puberty boys and girls still tend to keep apart. At this age there is sex curiosity rather than sexual attraction. What attraction there is will in most cases take the form of affection for friends of the same sex. This form of attachment is normal at the time. As the child grows older it gradually disappears and he becomes more and more interested in the opposite sex.

I do not believe that sex education at school should be given as a course by itself. Preferably it should be given as part of a course in human biology that includes all the other wonderful workings of the human body. It should be taught by persons specially trained to handle such a subject—and to do so in a way that should not be objectionable to any faith.

Children should certainly be given some idea of the importance of the sex impulse. They should learn that it is normal and natural and right for men and women to love one another—to marry, to have a home and children.

In explaining the sex impulse to a child in early adolescence, parents and teachers should make it plain that interest in sex is normal, that everyone shares it, and that it can be made to enrich human life or degrade it—that it is good in itself but can be misused. Sublimation, which means diversion of the sex impulse into such companionable but harmless boy-girl activities as athletics, dancing, dramatics, hiking, and so on, is the natural and accepted means of controlling the sex instinct until the emotions approach maturity and the boy or girl is ready for marriage. A casual kiss or hug is harmless enough, but more than this may lead to "heavy petting." Strong impulses are then aroused and left unsatisfied—which means a strain on the nervous system.

The association of boys and girls during adolescence is not only desirable but necessary to the growth of a well-rounded personality. Segregation of the sexes in these years is to be deplored, for its consequences are clearly evident. Suppose an adolescent girl is sent to a girls' school. She has a natural urge toward the other sex, but she can find no outlet for it. So she usually seeks out some girl or woman who represents strength to her—a teach-

er, the captain of the basketball team, the class president—and develops a deep affection for this person. If such a tendency to form "crushes" is not diverted later on, she may never recover a normal interest in the opposite sex. The same thing may happen to boys. As far as we can judge, the great majority of homosexual men and women remain at this level of sexual adjustment because of psychological deficiencies. So far medical science has been unable to detect any physiological difference between the normal human being and the homosexual.

If parents and teachers and churchmen will explore possibilities within the community, they can offer young people many channels for sublimation. In fact all community groups should join together to keep boys and girls busy and active. Working and enjoying themselves in dramatics, games, and other social activities, they will experience countless satisfactions suitable to their age. Of course we must remember that with very few exceptions sublimation can never be a complete substitute for sexual gratification. But the normal adolescent should understand why, in our culture, it is best to delay this until adulthood.

But shall we, in exchange for this understanding, present them with an uncertain future, one already shrouded in the mushroom smoke clouds of the atomic bomb? Shall our young people see their hopes of marriage deferred several years, chiefly for lack of sufficient income? Clearly, too many marriages nowadays are too long postponed. Financial help from parents could often ease the economic problem. We have gradually moved toward a widespread misconception—that the best marriage is that in which the husband is already selfsufficient financially. We have thereby prevented the establishing of many happy homes and families, withholding from our children their complete fulfillment as men and women at the very time when the biological urge is strongest. Instead of leaving our children money in our wills, we would be much better parents if we gave them money in their early twenties so that they could marry.

Our problem, then, from our children's infancy until they reach manhood and womanhood is to inculcate in them proper, decent, and wholesome sex attitudes. This cannot be accomplished if we set sex aside, treat it as a subject to be mentioned only in hesitant and whispered words.

We must see to it—if not through the home, through the school—that our children are given the realization that reproduction is among the most wonderful of God's gifts and that although we must, in our system of life, control ourselves as we go through adolescence, the sex urge and desires all boys and girls experience are normal, natural, and right. •

Functional, Not Ornamental

Trends in School Building Design

LOUIS R. LUNDGREN

In Minnesota Journal of Education

"WHAT is today's trend in the design of school buildings?" The answer to this question has been determined largely by educators constantly reappraising the school needs and architects searching for better solutions in terms of new materials and building techniques.

At the turn of the last century many of our smaller schools resembled to a degree our churches of the era. This similarity no doubt arose from the fact that schools were conducted in a manner similar to the way church services were held, with the teacher at the head of the classroom facing pupils seated in rows of fixed seats.

Today, educators and particularly elementary teachers are demanding more flexibility and adaptability in seating arrangements within the classroom at the elementary level in order that the classroom can adapt itself organically and inwardly to meet changes in curriculum. There has been a strong tendency to build elementary schools as one-story structures close to the ground, eliminating stairs insofar as possible.

Expansibility of the multi-storied, ornamental school was in many cases a virtual impossibility. Today's one-story skeleton frame construction is better adapted to planning for expansibility. In addition to making the building considerably safer and more economical to build, it has certainly made such structures more appealing to a small child. Most of us feel that the scale of school buildings as designed today is much more in relation to the individuals who occupy and use them than were our schools of the past.

Louis R. Lundgren is an architect in the firm of Haarstick, Lundgren and Associates. Reported from Minnesota Journal of Education, *XXXII (February, 1952), 22–23.*

It was common practice not too many years ago for most school buildings to have a lower level or basement half submerged into the ground and half out. It was commonly, though erroneously, felt that this was an economy.

However, the obvious result of such a planning concept was that much of the resultant school instructional space was below ground and in many way undesirable. It usually followed in this particular type of building that an overhead down-feed heating system was placed either on the ceiling or high on the walls. Fortunately, this type of planning is almost nonexistent today.

One of the fundamental reasons for better school planning today cer-

tainly is the higher technical competence of architects practicing today which is due in large part to better education of architects and the higher legal requirements of registration.

In the twenties and earlier we find school buildings as well as other public buildings were designed on a symmetrical basis to present what was considered an interesting facade or front to the building. This emphasis on a classical facade and a striving for monumentality usually resulted in a poorly functioning school. The planning concept today among all good school architects is almost the reverse; it begins with the individual classroom. Classrooms and other instructional spaces are designed to accommodate properly the functions for which they are intended. The relationship of these rooms, one to the other, is established on the basis of the communication between them.

Thus the beauty of the building is achieved not from an artificial pattern established by preconceived notion but rather by an organized asymmetrical balance of the principal masses in the building.

Fortunately in some respects the high cost of school buildings in recent years has led to the necessary elimination of all frills and artificial ornamentation. Consequently, our concepts of a handsome building result from the use of simple and inexpensive materials logically expressed.

Educators have requested ample natural light uniformly distributed in all instructional areas free from glare and high contrasts. Light steel frame construction has enabled architects to use walls of glass, clerestory lighting, and other devices to solve this problem. Educators and architects are insisting on ample, well shielded artificial illumination. Completely luminous ceilings have been used experimentally and seem to have many desirable aspects. All such systems thus far, however, have been expensive.

Briefly, we have gone over an outline of the changes and trends in school building design over the past few decades. What are these trends likely to be tomorrow?

Our current shortage of critical steel, copper, and aluminum, plus the ever-increasing cost of school buildings, is currently resulting in a continued search by architects and educators for new solutions. These solutions will undoubtedly result in new and different materials being used in the construction of school buildings.

This unit cost of school construction has been a constant challenge to the practicing architect to further simplify and better organize the building which he designs. While there is little question that this recent shortage of materials has had an appalling effect on the total quantity of school buildings being erected, the long-range effect may be beneficial in the sense that this challenge will result in new and perhaps better solutions to our school building problems.

Stimulating and Popular

In-School Work Experience

ELINE KRISCH

In Business Education Forum

THERE was a time when outside work assigned to our department was done in the advanced typewriting class, and after that, in any class, beginning or otherwise. This sort of thing went on year after year, until the principal had the happy thought of an office production class—a class that would do only outside work and nothing else—and for regular school credit. It worked! The pupils like it and tell their friends that it is the best class of all, and that they learn more in office production class than in a formal class.

The class is a natural. Everyone knows when beginning an assignment just why he is doing it, the name of the person who requested the work, the approximate date when needed, and when it is a rush job. Included in the assignments are letter-writing, typing duplicate, triplicate, and up to eight copies on onion-skin paper, cutting of stencils for the mimeograph, operation of the mimeograph, the assembling of a piece of work, and work on a long-carriage machine. When work is received in longhand, a format is worked out and a rough copy typed. Stencils are checked, presented to the teacher for final approval, and copies then turned out on the mimeograph. The first good copy is brought to the instructor. After approval, the number required is checked, and the run is made. The work is done in a cooperative spirit and with the thought that it must represent the student's best effort.

Eline Krisch teaches at Newport News, Virginia, High School. Reported from Business Education Forum, *VI (February, 1952), 12–13.*

In our school with a 55-minute period, we have found that about 12 or 15 pupils make the ideal class. We have enough work to keep them busy. Any pupil with good habits and attendance record in the second year of typewriting may take the class.

Before the organization of this class, work came from everywhere—personal, local organizations, churches, private schools—all in addition to the work of our own school. Our work is now approved by the principal or his secretary and is confined to the school system and its organizations. This does not mean that we do not want to do the community work—it is impossible to fill the many requests.

To do good work, one must have the time to do it. Care is now taken to be sure there is adequate time to perform a good job. After several weeks, pupils pride themselves

on the fact that they can work faster. They deliver their own work when it is finished, and often report that they were praised for a beautiful piece of work. They are eager to start another assignment.

When the English course of study was rewritten by the department a year ago it was sent to us. We also prepared the semi-annual report of the home-economics department to the state education department. This was done from the handwriting of several teachers. It had to be correct and neat. We all knew this, and we all worked for it together—pupils and teachers. Many other types of assignments are received: programs for the senior assembly, tests, reports, letters, forms for the school nurse, library notices, scripts of plays for the class night program, booklet style programs for the PTA Federation, English reading lists, and the like.

As mentioned before, the pupils like the class, and the teacher enjoys it, too. We often wish that it were possible to work together the entire morning. It is not uncommon for pupils to return during the day to continue their work or finish an assignment. The class and work seem to go on of their own accord. We have a feeling of satisfaction, or accomplishment, and of service to the school.

Usually in a group of this kind there are a few who take over extra duties, which require extra time, before school or after school. They can be counted on at any time. Because they have a feeling of responsibility, they work quickly and satisfactorily. These pupils, on recommendation by the teachers concerned, are singled out as outstanding and are awarded a school service letter at the spring assembly.

Indirectly, these pupils are getting ready for that first position. The standard is usable, mailable work, done with constant effort to acquire the skill to do this work faster. This is what the boys and girls will be required to do in business. They have learned to take time to look over a piece of work so that decisions can be made on style and setup, to take time to decipher handwriting and to question the meaning of words that they are not sure of, to check spelling, and to decide on punctuation. We have found that words are often misspelled in rough copy. They know that correcting the copy is their responsibility. Sometimes it is evident that something has been omitted. A conference with the person requesting the work is necessary. In other words, they are beginning to *think* about what they are doing. They understand the importance of proofreading and neatness, and turning out a "beautiful" piece of work.

The teacher has a wonderful opportunity in this class to "understand the individual learner." This understanding is reached as instructor and pupil work together, side by side, and day by day. Personality can be developed, confidence instilled, and a happy, efficient young person is ready to start his career. ●

School Within a School

Critical Problems in the Administration of Student Activities

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

IN considering the place of student activities in the secondary school of today, one is struck by the remarkable development which has taken place in the activities program in the past three decades. Paralleling the more formal activities of the classroom and course of study is a vast array of clubs of various types, athletic teams, assembly programs, social gatherings, musical and dramatic performances, and journalistic enterprises. This "school within a school" rivals the formal curriculum in its claim for the interest and attention of pupils, as well as in its demands on the time and energy of teachers.

Public interest frequently centers more around the successes and failures of athletic teams than in the less spectacular achievements in the classroom. Expenditures for the support of activities by individual pupils and their parents and from public funds warrant thoughtful attention to the administration of the activity program, and some appraisal of the results achieved. It seems appropriate to take an overview of this program and to point out certain shortcomings in that program as it exists in most secondary schools.

Early in the development of the activities program many conscientious teachers, and others as well, were opposed to extracurricular organizations as interfering with the attention of pupils to the real business of the school—learning lessons. Today, a few thoughtful leaders in secondary education fail to realize the positive contribution which activities can make to a functionally planned program. The results achieved by the activity program in actual practice, however, have fallen short of the accomplishments hoped for by many of its advocates. This lack of achievement may be traced in part to weaknesses in their administration. Attention is called to some of the more fundamental of these weaknesses in the conviction that only by their frank recognition and by concerted efforts at their elimination can the inherent values of the extracurricular program be achieved.

Edgar G. Johnston is Professor of Education in the College of Education of Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. Reported from The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *XXXVI (February, 1952), 1–12.*

1. Many schools have adopted the forms of an activity program

without any real understanding by teachers and pupils of the function it should perform. All too frequently activities have been introduced without consideration of local conditions, the necessary preparation of teachers and pupils to participate intelligently, or the gradual development essential to healthy growth. The result has been "self-government" hastily introduced and as hastily abandoned, ambitious club programs which fell by their own weight, and "home rooms" which are merely administrative conveniences. If even a small part of the values claimed for an activity program is to be achieved, those responsible must constantly be asking the question "What is this activity for?" and organize their program in the light of that answer.

2. We have been afraid of democracy. We have lacked faith in the ability of pupils to plan, to make intelligent decisions, and to accept responsibility. This is the most critical problem in the whole field of extracurricular activities and the one in which we have failed most. In our fear that pupils might make mistakes, we have not allowed them to make decisions. We have doubted their ability to choose leaders and have handpicked their leaders for them. The schools of America can have no more important obligation than giving pupils actual experience of the shared responsibility for plans and decisions in the democratic way of life.

3. Participation in the extracurricular program has been limited to too few pupils, both through regulations denying opportunity to pupils scholastically unsuccessful and through failure to provide for appropriate distribution. If the activity program is of the educational significance we have assigned to it, it is as illogical to require a pupil to maintain passing grades in order to participate in activities as it would be to say to a pupil, "You may not take English; you failed in algebra last semester." For some pupils the less formal activities of the extracurriculum represent the only phase of school experience in which they may achieve success and satisfaction. To deny them this opportunity is to refuse them the only real education the school affords for them.

Even where we set no scholastic limitations, we too often allow a small number of the more capable—or more socially prominent—pupils to monopolize those opportunities available. Also, no thoughtful teacher can read *Elmtown's Youth* without the disturbing realization that to many pupils from "across the tracks" the extracurricular program of the school presents experiences as frustrating as the routine of the classroom. Ample support for this conclusion is to be found in "hidden costs" studies.

4. The competitive aspects of the program have been overemphasized. The winning of contests has been allowed to overshadow more important outcomes. In athletics we have long been accustomed to a situation where

pupils divide themselves into gladiators and bench warmers. In recent years we have seen the development of a wide range of state and national contests in other fields of school activity—speech, debating, dramatics, journalism, music, typewriting, and academic subjects. Unquestionably the contest idea has stimulated interest in improved standards of performance and has broadened the experience of those participating. There is little doubt, however, that the present overemphasis has resulted in excessive participation by a few and neglect of the educational needs of the less capable—those who need the experiences most.

The democratic way of life needs desperately to increase the tendencies and opportunities for cooperation. As long as the need for winning is allowed to dominate the school's activities, these opportunities will not be realized. The needed redirection of emphasis depends on concerted action by those responsible for the development of activities.

5. In some instances, national organizations developed to encourage a particular phase of the activity program have devoted energy to promoting the organization and have lost sight of more inclusive objectives. There are undoubted advantages to be gained from the leadership which state and national organizations may contribute, but the touchstone by which their value may be measured is the extent to which they promote desirable pupil experiences within the individual school.

6. Organizations of special groups in the community or those engaged in promoting one point of view on controversial issues on which public opinion is divided are permitted in some instances to function as school organizations. The school should, of course, cooperate with youth-serving organizations representative of various community groups. Its facilities may well be made available on equal footing to all such organizations where this does not interfere with school activities. But sponsorship by the school should be limited to those organizations representative of the entire community and under direct control of the school and school personnel. We need to be alert to the danger that schools may be used as instruments for promoting the propaganda of special-interest groups. For the school to identify itself with one section of public opinion through endorsement of an *ex-parte* organization is open to legitimate objection by those holding different views.

7. The activity program has not been vitally related to the curriculum. A recognition of the common aims and relationships of these two phases of the total school program will serve to vitalize both. The curriculum should be viewed as "all the experiences of the child under the auspices of the school." If this is done, curriculum and extracurriculum serve to supplement each other, there is no sharp dividing

line between the two, and both are studied for their contribution to pupil growth.

8. There has been no consistent effort to evaluate activities in terms of fundamental objectives. If activities are to make a significant contribution to the total educational program, teachers—and pupils—need constantly to be measuring outcomes in terms of clearly defined objectives. Improved personnel records and new instruments of evaluation based on objectives hold much promise for constructive progress in this field.

9. Teacher-training institutions have failed to provide appropriate experiences for prospective teachers to prepare them for responsibilities in relation to extracurriculum activities. While some progress has been made, especially in summer sessions, preparation for the difficult duties of activity sponsorship has been entirely inadequate. At a recent meeting of a state principals association, the committee on teacher training cited this as the most notable problem in a survey of the orientation of beginning teachers. They come well prepared in subject fields, but know little of the duties of a home-room sponsor, the activities of a school club, or the function of the assembly. Institutions for the preparation of teachers must recognize the importance of giving prospective teachers meaningful experiences in this important phase of their future responsibilities.

10. Duties in relation to the activity program have not received adequate recognition in considering the teacher's load. This has a great deal to do with explaining the lack of enthusiasm and understanding on the part of some teachers. Frequently the broadened conception of the school's role has been accompanied by no recognition of the increased burden on the teacher's shoulders. The appropriate "teaching load" should be determined in the light of a realistic consideration of the teacher's total contribution to the school. Intelligent leadership in the activity program is more and not less difficult than traditional lesson hearing. Only through appropriate recognition of the teacher's varied duties are we likely to realize the maximum educational contribution of the activity program.

The weaknesses which have been pointed out here are serious and, unfortunately, all too common. They are not insurmountable. Here and there, individual schools have developed programs which are vitally related to the educational objectives of the school. Others may profit from their experience. School administrators and activity sponsors constantly need to ask themselves, "What is this activity for?" "Are we achieving the ends sought?" "Are we actually developing selfreliance, the desire to reach decisions democratically, and creative ability on the part of youth?" •

TUITION fees in American colleges have approximately doubled since 1945.

Subjective Teaching Still Needed

The High Price of Objectivity

FREDERICK C. NEFF

In The Clearing House

IF the impact of science and technology on our generation has done nothing else, it has urged on us a need for objectivity in our educational theory and practice.

To be objective has meant to free ourselves from the shackles of prejudice and half-truths. Embracing the concept of objectivity has necessitated an overhauling of our educational outlook; it has tended to rid us of the practice of imposing personal beliefs on others and to foster in us a high regard for what might be called an impartial presentation of truth. Insofar as such an approach has freed education from the power of personal bias, its influence has been wholesome and healthy. The question which arises is not whether we should be objective or not, but, rather, to what ends should we be willing to go in an attempt to be objective?

Is "pure" objectivity a desirable or attainable goal? To what state of affairs will an objective approach to education ultimately lead us?

In its common understanding, objectivity is usually taken to mean a lack of subjectivity. Propositions are understood to be true to the extent that they have evolved from discovery and, negatively, to the extent that they have not emerged from intuitive belief. Accordingly, the lower the degree of subjectivity, the greater the degree of objectivity, Q.E.D. Elimination of the personal element lends validity to the truth or falsity of propositions, since the subjective is very often associated with the emotional, and emotional factors are highly charged with powers of persuasion. If truth is to be objective, it must be believed in on some other basis than its emotional appeal or its attractiveness.

Frederick C. Neff is a teacher in the Department of Education of Occidental College, Los Angeles, California. *Reported from* The Clearing House, *XXVI (January, 1952), 259–62.*

Carried to its logical conclusion, any argument for this brand of objectivity is apt to become a *reductio ad absurdum.* To embrace the objective approach to such an extent that all subjective elements are removed is to make no provision for interpretive and critical thinking. To regard objectivity as an attitude from which all subjective elements have been removed is to deprive it of its vitality and its life blood. In education it is to formalize teaching procedures and to deprive them of their functional value.

No doubt there are areas of teaching where any other than an objective approach would be not only

undesirable but likewise impossible. Mathematical maxims and geometrical theorems are scarcely matters of opinion; rather they are of the nature of selfevident truths, which is to say that they are highly objective. Most areas of science deal with matters which are provable on other grounds than subjective opinion. But there is a point beyond which opinion becomes judgment and thus attains respectability. Insofar as we are dealing with theories, hypotheses, and assumptions—and there is a legitimate place for them in the scientific framework—we are injecting an element of subjectivity into our approach. Does this mean then that we have surrendered our objectivity? Probably not, if we recognize that objectivity needs to be given direction by subjective judgment.

SUBJECTIVE INTERPRETATION

An objective presentation of a Shakespearean sonnet would yield little more than a knowledge of its theme, its rhyme scheme, and the language used, none of which was the primary intention of its author. The sonnet assumes significance to the degree that provision is made for an individual or subjective interpretation of its meaning. It has significance to the degree that it can be rendered useful—to the degree that it can be related to our previous experience and thereby produce changes in our outlook.

Educationally, the significance of knowledge resides not in what is, but in what is possible. This is to imply that educational objectives must be geared to something beyond mere knowing. It is to say that the real significance of knowledge emerges from the possibilities it affords for moral and intellectual growth. Insofar as objectivity requires a presentation of and familiarity with the known, it is *sine qua non* of the educative process. But this is only a beginning. If we are serious in our attempt to foster critical thinking, then we need to go beyond an "objective" presentation of subject matter and provide opportunity for evaluation, a reorganization of experience, and the shaping of outcomes in terms of our best judgment.

GREAT TEACHERS

In teaching democratic concepts, an objective approach furnishes the necessary facts on which to build. But too often we as teachers have been impartial to the point of being colorless. A series of phonograph records could have done as well. While knowledge of democracy may be gained from books, a love of and respect for democratic ideals is gained only through personal contact. We often evaluate our educational growth in terms of the great teachers we have had. No apathetic automatons were they! It has been those teachers who have inspired in us a love of learning and who have been courageous enough to "take a stand" who mark the milestones in our learning careers.

It has been said that when we begin with certainty we shall end with

doubt; it could equally be said that when we begin with doubt we shall end with certainty. The suspension of judgment until all available data have been gathered is of the essence of the scientific method. But this is not to say that the mere amassing of data will in itself eventuate in critical judgment. It is this limited notion of the function of science which has led many persons to argue that, while science may offer means for getting things done, it cannot furnish direction in terms of ideals, values, and goals. The latter, it is argued, must come from philosophy, metaphysics, or religion.

So long as science is conceived as means only, we shall have to look elsewhere for direction. But this results in the setting up of ends apart from the method which should be used in arriving at them. The basic question is whether ends should be instituted apart from testing and inquiry or whether they should be the very goal of the scientific method.

The concept of science as means requires the institution of ends from some other source than science itself. When science is conceived as attitude, then ends emerge from the very nature of the scientific method. Science as attitude offers opportunity for the emergence of values and goals which a narrowly "objective" approach denies. It is well to begin with a high regard for objectivity; it is better to allow the method of objectivity to form a basis for hypothesizing and testing.

Educational practices which begin and end with an impartial presentation of subject matters do no more than perpetuate the *status quo*. This is like sailing on a sea without a compass. When objectivity becomes an end in itself, educational processes deteriorate into the mere absorption of factual information. It has been supposed that the acquisition of factual data will somehow transform the learner into a thinking individual. This is a wild and dangerous assumption. For unless provision is made for the translation of information into an intelligent program of action, i.e., unless conditions are provided for critical evaluation, discernment, and judgment, an objective approach to learning and teaching becomes little more than an exposure to knowledge.

The formulation of ends and ideals is the only ultimate justification for critical thinking. Insofar as an impartial presentation of truth contributes to the thinking process, it is paramount to the educative program. But no one ever became wise merely through knowing. Let objectivity therefore be conceived as a proper beginning—the beginning of wisdom. •

ONE of the best ways to help teen-agers meet their need to further understand human relationships is to get them interested in observing young children.
—Dr. Helen Christianson in the *Journal of Home Economics*

Survival Is the Problem

A Safety Program for the High School

FORREST E. LONG

In The Journal of Educational Sociology

BY the time boys and girls reach the secondary school they have "learned" about all the safety they think they need. In a word, safety education for the average high-school boy or girl often is considered old stuff. But much of safety education may be learning to use old ideas or concepts in new and different ways. For this reason, safety education in the high school offers a challenge to the most versatile teachers.

Safety should not be considered as something separate and apart from living. For this reason safety education in the high school is not thought of as something that can be imparted outside the experiences of living. Successful safety education isn't even the mastery of skills needed for survival. In fact, many of those who have perished from accidents knew better than to commit the very acts that caused the accidents. The best safety education seems to promote a new way of looking at old problems. Safety education provides the substance of survival and encourages us to act as though we are concerned over survival.

High-school pupils seem to resent safety admonitions. Safety is not very well taught by those who want us never to do dangerous things. In a way, successful safety education merely causes us to calculate the risks involved in our actions.

Forrest E. Long, Chairman of the Department of Secondary Education, School of Education, New York University, New York City, has held office in several safety organizations. Reported from The Journal of Educational Sociology, *XXV (December, 1951), 223–26.*

If a fire were to start each and every time a lighted match is dropped, we would very soon learn not to drop matches. But our experience has been quite the contrary. If each time a pedestrian ignores a red light he is put upon by a motor vehicle, or almost so, then surely he will soon learn that it pays to wait for the green signal before crossing a street. But actually we have crossed against the red light many times and nothing happened. Good safety education in the high school helps boys and girls to realize what *may* happen if we continue to ignore traffic signals and what *may* happen if we make a habit of tossing matches carelessly away.

There are many facets of modern life where we teach that it is highly desirable to take chances. Athletics present a good example. The batter does not always try for a bunt or a single—a Bobby Thomson

slams out a homer in the ninth and wins a pennant. The good athlete takes a chance. The successful business man also has taken chances. He tells about how he started his business on a shoestring, how he would still be a bookkeeper if he hadn't taken a chance. Indeed the average adolescent is likely to see all around him evidence that successful leaders are those who take chances.

In the face of all such contradicting evidence, the high-school safety program comes along and proposes to teach pupils never to take certain chances: never to pass another car on a hill or a curve, never to lean over from a ladder, never to walk out into traffic from between parked cars, never to leave a sharp paring knife in the dish water, never to allow the handles of pots and pans to extend beyond the edge of the stove, never to lay scatter rugs without satisfactory anchors, and all the rest. Is it too surprising that many high-school boys and girls consider it "chicken" even to take seriously much that is taught in safety?

The very independence that adolescents are gaining is reflected in their unwillingness to conform to the standards set by adults in the safety field. The most successful safety programs encourage boys and girls to set desirable standards for themselves. Admittedly, though, it is difficult to get junior to decide to obey all traffic regulations when driving, if mother and dad always charge through the intersection stop signals when they drive.

In spite of all we have done to date in the secondary school, the accident toll for youth is discouragingly high. But there is one very encouraging prospect in the driver-education program. Classroom and practice driving have proved to be effective. Studies indicate that young people who have taken these courses have a much better driving record than the control groups who have not been so instructed.

It has been estimated that over two million young people have received these special driver courses in 7922 secondary schools during the past four years and the number of schools offering such courses is increasing at a rapid rate. These driver courses have sometimes proved to be expensive in actual money outlay, but probably they represent the best investment, dollar for dollar, that we make in education. In many cases interested individuals and groups outside the schools have helped by contributing automobiles and, in some cases, instructors. More of us are recognizing that it will avail us little to give a formal education to our young people but fail to teach them how to survive. Without a doubt, the time is fast coming when driver education and training will be a recognized part of the program of all American high schools.

Safety education is a consistent part of instruction in many areas of secondary education. It is difficult to imagine competent instruction in cooking, physical education, athletics, science, and shop without

specific instruction in accident prevention. But many administrators and teachers have become convinced that something more than driver courses and "incidental" instruction in the various shops and laboratories is needed. Too many youngsters are experiencing fatal or crippling accidents.

In many high schools the pupils themselves are making safety "respectable" by starting school safety organizations. The President's Highway Safety Conference recommended that each school system and each school appoint a safety chairman or coordinator. These chairmen, working through student safety organizations or committees, seem to offer the best chance of making the safety program practical and effective. Some schools offer formal courses in safety.

In many high schools, the safety committees or organizations supply visual aids to teachers and classes, they arrange library and hall exhibits, they prepare bulletin-board material, and they study safety conditions in and around the schools.

When safety education can be presented in such a way that the high-school pupils themselves decide that safety is important, then we can be certain that safety instruction is making itself felt.

Unfinished Laboratory

Stanford University has a laboratory it hopes will never be finished. This strange contrast to other laboratories is located in the basement of the Stanford School of Education. It is called the School Planning Laboratory and it is a showcase of school building problems . . . and answers. Displays, worth $80,000, range from the most modern types of lighting equipment to heating and ventilating units; from desks and chairs to nonglare blackboards; and from flooring to acoustic tile. It has a model classroom, built on a scale of three inches to a foot and other demonstration units that enable educators to see their building problems answered visually, not in blueprints but in steel, concrete, wood, plastic, and many other construction materials. Superintendents and board members from all over California visit the laboratory to keep pace with changes in methods and materials. Over 60 firms have donated materials for this unique project.

Students Help Plan Their Education

Prospective Teachers Learn Teamwork in College

MARGARET N. LAHEY and WILLIAM H. EDSON

In Childhood Education

"ARE we sure that this new course is needed? Can't its content be included in a course that is given now?"

It was a student raising the question. As a voting member she was participating in a recent meeting of the curriculum committee of the College of Education at the University of Minnesota. Other members of this policy-making group included a second student and 10 faculty members.

Student participation in the work of this committee is but one example of the way in which students in the College of Education at the University of Minnesota now share responsibility in the development of their program of teacher education. Through this and other opportunities to take part in planning, students learn to work with groups in solving educational problems, gain skill in dealing with educational issues, and obtain experience in policy making that will be of value to them in their later school work.

In recent years the students have taken increased responsibility in the development of their program. This has come about through a student government that emphasizes faculty-student relationships, through voting membership of students on all principal committees of the college, and through student steering committees in education classes.

William H. Edson is assistant professor and director of student personnel, and Margaret N. Lahey is student counselor at the University of Minnesota College of Education, Minneapolis. *Reported from* Childhood Education, *XXVIII (February, 1952), 257–59.*

In the spring of 1945, a College of Education Intermediary Board was established, largely through the efforts of the two senior service organizations, Alpha Sigma Pi and Eta Sigma Upsilon. The board is composed of elected and appointed student representatives and two faculty advisers selected by the students. The number making up the board varies with the enrolment of the college. One representative is chosen for each 200 students.

The board performs four major functions: (1) It conducts regular studies and discussions of curricular problems, faculty-student relations, and educational aims of the college; (2) it brings to the attention of the faculty the problems and suggestions arising from these studies; (3) it receives petitions and statements from students and student groups on matters falling within its

jurisdiction; (4) it holds open-forum discussions of current issues and gives publicity to its work.

Through this recognized organization the students have gained needed status as well as an official channel of communication to the faculty. The president of the board is the official student representative at all faculty meetings.

In 1950 the faculty of the college officially recognized that student participation in policy making is another phase of cooperative planning. As a result of its declaration, students have become voting members of ten major college committees. Three of these deal directly with the problems of curriculum, general education, and junior sequence.

The initial selection of student members of the policy-making committees is done by the intermediary board. Early in the fall quarter every student who is interested in serving on one of the committees fills out a lengthy application blank, indicating his qualifications. Each applicant is then interviewed by board members. From this group the board selects the best-qualified students to recommend for appointments. The dean of the college then appoints these students along with the faculty members who are to serve during the year.

The work of the curriculum committee may be mentioned as an example of how the committee system works. The committee studies and passes on all requests for changes in curriculums under the college. Some of these requests originate with students. All of them are examined critically by the student members of the committee. The group's recommendations are then submitted to the entire faculty in quarterly meetings. Because of the thorough work done in committee, faculty approval is given readily to almost all recommendations of the group.

Through this and the other committees the students play an influential role in establishing policies affecting the curriculum and preservice training of undergraduates. Better understanding between faculty and students is also fostered. One student member remarked, "I thought I'd have to go to the committee meeting prepared to uphold the 'student point of view.' Was I amazed to learn in that session that faculty members seem to understand our needs better than we do!"

As a result of this policy, prospective teachers in the teacher education program at the University of Minnesota have laboratory experiences in teamwork. These experiences occur in the classroom, in policy-making committee sessions, and in student-sponsored activities. "They are worth more than all the assignments I've read in textbooks," is the opinion expressed by one College of Education student. While this highly enthusiastic statement might not be voiced by all students—or faculty members—it indicates that teamwork can increase zeal as well as skills in future teachers.

Lampooning Does Not Help

Redefining the Doctrine of Usage

ROBERT M. LIMPUS

In Michigan Education Journal

EVERY English teacher who takes his job seriously has reason to be indignant when newspapers print a story like this one:

> A University of Michigan professor of English says it don't make no difference if you bust many of the commonly-accepted rules of grammar. A lot of them ain't no good, he says, because they are so clumsy and don't make for natural talking.
>
> Prof. Charles E. Fries told a meeting of the Modern Language Association of America there's nothing wrong with murdering the language by using double negatives or by blurting out "ain't" in society.
>
> Fries said modern grammar is outmoded and too many persons are cramping their style by letting age-old rules govern their speech habits.
>
> "English grammar should be based on usage rather than the ancient rules of Latin syntax," he said.
>
> Fries said public schools are "on the wrong track" in teaching English. . . .

The English teacher who has a good modern grounding in linguistics easily can recognize this story as an attempt to make journalistic hay of something which, if sufficiently misunderstood, is mildly shocking. The college professor is always good for a laugh, particularly when he is presented as getting down to the level of ordinary folk. It doesn't really matter that you quote him correctly or in context. He is a harmless sort of person who shouldn't mind if he is the butt of a little patronizing humor. But the thing becomes serious when one realizes that such a story can be misinterpreted by educated men, even by some school administrators and curriculum advisers, who should know better.

Robert M. Limpus is a member of the English Department, Western Michigan College, Kalamazoo. Reported from Michigan Education Journal, *XXIX (February, 1952), 359–60.*

The "doctrine of usage," travestied by the newspaper story quoted, has been argued and demonstrated for a good many years, but it is now the established point of view of the scientific linguist. It emphatically does *not* say that any expression is right so long as someone uses it. It does *not* say that there is no value in the study of grammar. It does *not* say that a person should feel free to say *ain't* in any society. It does say that grammar, to be scientific, must consist of a set of descriptions of what numbers of persons actually say and write at some particular time and place. It denies the validity of grammatical imperatives to which a language ought to conform, regardless of whether it does or does not. It recognizes the fact that language,

like the people who use it, does not always behave the same way at all times and places. It implies that, if one is to teach the use of a language his first obligation should be to find out, by realistic observation, what that language is.

Now, this attitude toward language has important implications for teaching. English should be taught, not as a dead language, with externally fixed forms and unchanging idioms, but *as a living tongue* which adapts itself with amazing facility to people's thought processes.

Even though acceptance of the doctrine of usage has been shocking to some and confusing to many others, the effect should be salutary in the long run. Accuracy and effectiveness in communication are our twin goals, rather than conformity to an academically prescribed pattern. The point which may be overlooked by a superficial observer is that achieving these goals is a terribly hard job, just as hard as forcing students to learn expressions which they will seldom use. In a way, it is harder.

It requires that the English teacher acquire perspective—he ought to have special training in the development of the English language and knowledge of a foreign language in order to sharpen his understanding of English forms and idioms. He must have the ability to instill the ideals of accuracy and effectiveness in his students. He must be able to *inspire* students to be dissatisfied with half-meaningful expressions, to seek the satisfaction of being able to use the right word, to judge an audience, and to measure the effectiveness of a communication by the kind of difference it makes in the audience to which it is directed.

Of course grammar is worth teaching. Making a sentence which moves straight to its goal and and strikes with the impact of a rifle bullet combines both art and science. It comes "naturally" to very few persons. Such skill cannot be learned without understanding the structure of a sentence. That's syntax. We can't do without it. We can call the parts of a sentence A, B, and C, or subject, verb, and complement; we are using grammar and syntax just the same. The important thing is to teach grammar and syntax which are both true to the language and useful to the student.

It would seem odd, wouldn't it that Professor Fries who teaches a course in modern English grammar at the University of Michigan and who has published a book called *American English Grammar* should say that "modern grammar is outmoded" or contend that "there's nothing wrong with murdering the language." And yet that's what the reporter put in his story. And that's all that many influential persons will read about the doctrine of usage.

It is not a crime for child from the poorer side of the tracks to repeat his parents' *ain't*. But it *is* wrong for a reporter to use his own excellent training in grammar and rhetoric to give aid and comfort to those who deny the value of such training. •

Patriarchy Has Its Place

The Overeducated Parent

NATHAN H. GLICKSMAN

In High Points

I EARN my living as a teacher, and spend it as a parent. Out of duty to my profession, I have devoted 20 years to pondering and perfecting my fitness for guiding youth. I had never thought much about my qualities as a parent until colleagues who taught my offspring said, "Your children are certainly a credit to you. How do you do it?" That started me on a path of selfexamination, and I pass the results along, with as much humility as sweet praise has left me.

Over the years I have discovered, from close contact with my pupils and with my own offspring, that a child is by nature a selfcentered barbarian. I long ago concluded, and I still feel, that it is the parent's responsibility to forward the progressive decentralization of the child's ego by instilling in him an alert awareness of the effect of one's actions on those around one. I believe with J. S. Mill, "The freedom of the individual must so far be limited: He must not make himself a nuisance to other people."

Society needs, and has a right to demand, much more than a bit of repression of every individual, for repression is the price of admission to the parliament of man, and there is no use complaining about the high cost of living with our fellows.

I doubt, though it has long been shouted but never proved, that repression is invariably, or even frequently, bad. Possibly the disorientation claimed springs more from our refusal to accept the need, and from our dodging the unpleasant task of enforcing it on our growing generations.

Nathan H. Glicksman teaches at the Bronx High School of Science, New York City. Reported from High Points, *XXXIV (February, 1952), 11–17.*

I believe I was fortunate in sensing as a novice father, that the parent who allows his child to indulge in an orgy of exuberant conduct, involving annoyance for others without pointing up his offspring's awareness, is storing up future headaches for himself and his child.

From their earliest years to the present moment, I have always stimulated the somnolent social sensitivity of my own children, when they approach the brink of incipient boorishness, with some sudden cold dash of honest evaluation, as: "Since when have you gone into training to become an idiot?" Or with weak subtlety: "And what leads you to believe I need *your* assistance in breaking our lease on this apartment?" Or a bit bluntly, since their entry into their second

decades: "Don't think that my pride in your not being a juvenile *delinquent* will lead me to condone your acting like a juvenile *jerk*." They get the point.

"IT'S ONLY A STAGE!"

I have developed an allergy for the rationalizing parents who minimize the boorish, spiteful, or disobedient actions of offspring by labeling them "developmental indications," or declaring, "It's only a stage!"

I found that my own potentially boorish progeny readily learned to respond graciously to my correction because they gathered from repeated encounters that whatever my manner of expression, the evaluation was honest and sound, and was based on a far richer fund of experience than they had thus far been able to amass. I have never deceived them with the illusion that, because they are dear to me, they have either the ability, or the right, to meet me, or other adults, on a plane of equality in evaluations of judgments. They have sensed that the responsibilities of first-class citizenship cannot be donated, but are the achievement of a myriad of honestly evaluated personal chances and mischances extending across more years than they have so far encompassed.

The contemporary child is essentially no worse, and definitely not better, than his counterpart of the pre-child-psychology era. Since the chief function of our modern child-handling techniques has been not to improve the child, but to protect the child from the parent, the child has sensed license for making himself a greater nuisance to grown-ups than he's ever dared to be throughout all the previous history of mankind. I have always felt it was extremely unfair of the child to indulge his superiority, in such items as sounder nerves, stabler digestion, more efficient metabolism, and boundless energy, to harass and bully his less sturdy elders. It breaks the parent's spirit and renders him less fit for encounters outside the "sheltered home circle." What the modern parent really needs is some techniques of selfprotection against his offspring. The child never gives a grown-up an even break.

I never beat my children—except in anger and in selfdefense. An unprolonged thrashing, applied with all the fervor of outraged love, is, I have found, the finest restorer of the intimately affectionate *status quo*. However, I have never made a ceremony of punishment, or prolonged it, or postponed it. No normal child enjoys a punishment. While it is impending, and while it is being meted, the satisfying emotional bond between parent and child is severed, or at least badly strained. For this reason, the ideal punishment should be informal, immediate, and swift.

SECOND-CLASS CITIZENS

When one or more of my two children overstepped the limits of the privileges they enjoyed as second-class citizens of the home, in

such a manner as to warrant more than verbal visitation of parental ire, I allowed my wrath to explode into a blitzkrieg of flailing palms. In a few highly keyed seconds the punishment was meted out, the child's frame of emotion was reconditioned, and a fresh ground was cleared for a reestablishment of peaceful family relations.

EASE OF MIND

The well-publicized child psychologist has "done in" the *modern* parent's ease of mind, and has made the well-read parent a self-conscious, selfmistrusting, hag-ridden, indecisive individual who suffers the agonizing remorse pangs of a well-rooted guilt complex if he so far forgets himself as to shake an inhibiting forefinger at his child.

The pedantic peddlers of *approved* child handling techniques have done a viciously effective job of publicity, using the same scare techniques as the radio and press hucksters of deodorants and dentifrices. The "progressive" parent, in his stubborn fanaticism for the latest lab-tested word, is now practically impervious to a reorientation to common sense. The more his relations with his child deteriorate, the more tenaciously he clings in blind faith to his child-psychology texts, and the more proudly does he raise his bloody head to intone smugly, "I *never* use corporal punishment on *my* child."

A child in the home is neither a pet, nor a hobby, nor a fit subject for endless analysis. Yet too many otherwise intelligent parents place discussion on their children's behavior symptoms on a par with gin rummy as a best way of passing a social evening. Having seen their children in action, I know these psychological-slogan-slinging fathers and mothers for what they are—parental failures, lost and whistling along the ill-illuminated catacombs of modern depth psychology. I begrudge neither myself, nor any parent, the legitimate prides and joys of parenthood, but such joy should be more subtle than a continual indiscriminate doting over, worry over, and interpretation of the child's every manifestation that he is responsively alive, and superior to the amoeba in intelligence and actions.

INDEPENDENCE

No child can really be, or wants to be, independent to any appreciable degree. He knows that his parents must be his shield in a very complex world. Therefore, the sureness of touch and the freedom from selfconsciousness a parent develops in child-handling will influence his child's feeling of security. The blundering parent who has allowed the child to gain too strong a sway and too great a say in the home, destroys his child's sense of security, for the child reasons, subconsciously, "If my parent can't even control me, how can he control the more potent, mysterious forces that menace our security?" I may be a somewhat spongy "rock of ages" in my *own* selfevaluation, but in my rela-

tion to my children they have sensed that I am a safe bet not to founder before they are ready to put out on their own.

Patience, calm, restraint, understanding, impartiality, sympathy, kindness, detachment, and such praiseworthy qualities of the approved (by the child-study associations) parents, *should* have their proper place in the fatherly behavior pattern, but only in the same proportion in which one finds them distributed among any random samplings of decent Man.

I have seen to it (and it has needed not too much conscious premediation on my part) that my children have been exposed to me in the many other moods equally characteristic of humanity. They have learned to reckon with such of my humors as the irritable, the vituperative, the surly, the melancholic, the carping, the apoplectic, the invective, the evocative, and a few as yet unclassified. So when they encounter like reactive emotional phenomena among theater ushers, bus drivers, teachers, and store clerks, my children are at no loss in erecting the appropriate barriers against possible emotional trauma, and do not feel that life, or their parent, has led them on with false illusions about Mankind. In short, as a senior and ruling member of the home circle, I try to be relaxed, myself. Should one of my offspring ever use me as subject for one of those *Reader's Digest* thumbnails, I hope it will bear the title: "The Most Representative Father I Ever Had."

On Reading

> I have devoted especial pains to learn, with some degree of numerical accuracy, how far the reading, in our schools, is an exercise of the mind in thinking and feeling, and how far it is a barren action of the organs of speech upon the atmosphere. The result is that more than 11/12ths of all the children in the reading classes in our schools do not understand the meaning of the words they read, that they do not master the sense of the reading lessons, and that the ideas and feelings intended by the author to be conveyed to, and excited in, the reader's mind, still rest in the author's intention, never having yet reached the place of their destination.
>
> —*Horace Mann*, Secretary to the Massachusetts Board of Education, in his 1838 report.

What Does Research Show on that Favored Target, Reading?

Facts Sometimes Belie Attacks

CLYDE G. CORLE

In Ohio Schools

ALMOST every week brings a fresh attack on the public schools of America. Critics strike through magazines, newspapers, the radio, the movies, and their daily conversation. Attacks range from violent denunciations of the products of public education to reminiscences of the schools of a generation or two ago. The criticisms indicate that the chief shortcoming of the school is the failure to teach the fundamental skills, that modern schools lay stress on things other than the teaching of the three R's.

In a day of never-ending struggle to stretch the tax dollars allotted to public education, any intimation that the taxpayer is not getting value received for them becomes a considerable consequence to school people. Suggestions that public-school men are squandering those dollars come from at least four sources. First, there is the person who seeks for some reason to undermine public education. That reason may be subversive, financial, or just plain "cussedness." Second, there is the intellectual or the crank who insists that the school must give to all, regardless of ability to achieve it, a broad liberal arts background. Third, many people, armed with isolated facts or half-truths, seek to gain publicity or "sell a magazine article." Fourth, men and women who are guided by research and a broad background of study and experience, may offer criticisms of the shortcomings of school people based on an accurate knowledge of what ought to be going on in the profession.

Clyde G. Corle, formerly Superintendent, Ansonia, Ohio, schools, is a graduate student at Teachers College, University of Cincinnati. Reported from Ohio Schools, *XXX (January, 1952), 5, 32–33.*

The fact that reading is liberally treated by all these critics as being one of the signs of modern educational decadence brings it into focus as deserving some special attention. While all of the charges are serious and some may deserve an answer, there is reason to be concerned about the accusations directed toward reading as it is taught in the public schools.

Glib statements have been made about reading today and reading yesterday with little thought of the exact condition of reading today and that of a generation ago. Comparisons are made with little thought that research will likely bring out facts that belie these comparisons.

No one is so blind as to believe that every child has learned to read

efficiently and well. But to assume that this is the result of modern education is questionable logic. School leaders will be the first to admit that education has not reached a Utopia.

The critics have gathered their share of applause. Letters to the editors of publications which have carried critical articles indicate that the articles have been read and that they are approved by many. It would seem, however, that certain facts should be considered before the absolute truth of such articles be accepted.

First, the school population of today is considerably different from that of a generation or more ago. Compulsory attendance has brought about a condition in which, as Elsa Butcher describes, "more children are going to school and staying in school than ever before. Fifty years ago," continues Butcher, "only the best prepared went to college. It is not so much that college people have not learned to read as it is that people who have not learned to read are going to college."

Second, adequate measuring sticks for evaluating the real skills in reading have not been developed to the point where one can say with definiteness that this or that is true beyond all shadow of doubt. The few records that have been preserved from earlier days of education are mostly inadequate, and it can only be surmised what the actual conditions were at that time. Human recollections and the reminiscences of the aged are hardly reputable bases for a case against the teaching of reading and modern education.

Third, where records of statistical value have been left, a good many studies have been made of them and in no instance was it shown that reading has suffered through its more recent presentation.

Dr. W. S. Gray summarized a study completed recently among 15,000 sixth-grade children in Indiana and over 11,000 tenth-graders from the same state. He pointed out that the results of tests given from 1913 to 1920 show that in a number of large cities the range of reading abilities as measured by reading tests varied as greatly then as now. He noted also that the range of achievement in reading was about as close to normal distribution then as now. This was true in spite of the fact that techniques for dealing with exceptional children were then undeveloped, and many children were held in a grade until reading skills approached the level for that grade.

J. I. Krugman and J. W. Wrightstone have cited several other studies which compared modern methods of teaching reading with traditional methods. In New York City, for example, among 1000 pairs of readers matched for an experiment, those taught by the "activity" method were superior to those taught by the "traditional" methods in such things as library habits, quality of reading, and personal adjustment. In the same school system, an experiment was conducted

to evaluate reading readiness, a comparatively recent trend in teaching reading. It was discovered that by the time the students had reached fourth- or fifth-grade standing, those who had been taught reading after readiness was assured were far ahead of those who were plunged immediately into reading.

In Springfield, Missouri, steps had been taken to modernize that city's educational system. Criticism of the new plan of education prompted a study which has been described by F. H. Finch and V. W. Gillenwater. Records were available here of the Thorndike-McCall Reading Tests given from 1927 to 1931. These same tests were given to a corresponding group of children in 1948. The sixth grade was chosen for the study as being a significant grade for the development of reading skills. Scores averaging almost a half grade higher than in 1931 were made by the children taking the test in 1948.

Here every effort was made to study possibilities that the investigation was in error due to outside factors. Population studies, evaluation of school experiences, migration of students, and even the "test-wiseness" of the students were taken into consideration in announcing these results.

In another study Ernest W. Tiegs used 1945 as a division point and compared test results in reading with more recent results. Among over 80,000 elementary-school children tested in 60 communities in seven states, he found that gains in reading comprehension were relatively consistent throughout the school grades reported. He took into account certain limitations of the sampling and some unfavorable factors of the times but declared, "it is safe to conclude that the achievement of public-school pupils is not falling." In fact, the data he presented showed "a slight, although not statistically significant, gain."

The last fact to be considered in appraising critical opinion is that criticism fairly made and reasonably taken may be for the general good of education. Nothing exists in a void, and aroused public opinion may be the ally that insures evaluation of the charges and correction if needed. Teachers know the limitations placed on their professional progress by parental neglect, poor home conditions, the neglect of the physical well-being of the child, and the inadequacy of the schools and of teaching conditions.

Having these called to public attention by almost any method is one way of righting them. However, the charges that teachers are inadequately prepared and that they lack direction and purpose cannot be refuted through a policy of indignation toward those who have delivered them.

It is better to examine all legitimate criticism wherever it presents itself, to accept and act on that which is justified, and to present concrete evidence to refute biased and untoward attacks. ●

To Meet the Future

Developing Problem-Solving Skills in Adolescents

LUCIEN B. KINNEY

In The High School Journal

ONE certainty in an otherwise uncertain world is that the adolescents of today will face many critical problems in the future. To prepare these people to solve their problems is the primary responsibility of the organized curriculum. It is the essential learning outcome for adolescents. It is the real challenge to good teachers.

Problem-solving ability is, to some extent, a measure of intelligence. For the most part, however, it is a matter of knowing how. It comes as a result of careful learning and abundant practice. The extent to which the curriculum makes provision for such learning and practice is the one best measure of its adequacy. The organized fields of subject matter that we teach in the high school today afford a proven means to these ends. It is because of the contributions they have made to the problem-solving ability of mankind that they have become an established part of our cultural heritage. As a means of developing problem-solving ability they possess a dynamic value that is lost once they become ends in themselves.

Many of the problems the adolescent is preparing himself to meet will be his individual responsibility, to be solved by his unaided efforts. More and more, however, today's problems transcend the competence or responsibility of an individual. They must be dealt with by many people, skilled in the processes of group thinking and action. These processes must be carefully taught in classrooms that provide experiences in discussion and group action, as well as in individual initiative and leadership.

Lucien B. Kinney is Professor of Education at Stanford University, Palo Alto, California. Reported from The High School Journal, *XXXV (January, 1952), 113–19.*

What we are saying, then, is that the development of the skills fundamental to democratic action can no longer be left to chance. We cannot equip the adolescent with the answers to the problems that will arise in his personal and public life. But we can see to it that he knows how to attack them.

A classroom in which this responsibility is accepted can be identified by the nature of its activities and materials of instruction. Equally important is the fact that both are focused on problems rather than topics. They are real problems, in the sense that the pupils consider them worthy of class time. They overlap adult problems, because the

study of problems significant to adolescents seems to lead inevitably into adult problem areas.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

Getting a job is a problem of immediate concern to most adolescents. This leads to an interest in learning what kinds of jobs are available, what the requirements and opportunities are in various fields, and what procedures are effective in getting a job. In one classroom this developed into a survey of job opportunities in the community, the results of which benefitted both students and the community as a whole.

Many of the real problems that arise in the field of economic adjustment are quantitative in character. Young people are not only interested in getting a job, but also in getting the most for the money they earn. How can I manage my earnings so as to buy what I want, and still have a good time? Is it worth the extra cost, for example, to buy a used car on instalments. To establish classroom activities applicable to the economic problems of the pupil requires careful planning.

One of the most pressing needs of the adolescent is to understand people. He has to deal with and understand adults in his family group, his classroom, and in his community. His contacts with his peers, with their rapidly changing personalities, are almost as frustrating as with adults. The keen interest created in the adolescent by this personal need for understanding and getting along with his associates provides an opportunity for meeting one of the most important of the social needs of our times—the need for adults who understand people; who can deal with the problems of labor relations, family relations, and international relations in an atmosphere of tolerance and cooperation based on an understanding of what makes people tick.

The field of literature, including drama, movies, radio, and television, provides one of the major avenues for interpreting life. Thus, in one classroom, a study of a current problem involving a minority group was made the occasion for reading and discussing *The Return of the Native* and other novels of similar character. Teachers who have utilized this approach have no difficulty in setting up adequate book lists for any current problem. If we broaden the field to include the mass media of communications, the resources are unlimited.

THE SCHOOL'S PRIMARY FUNCTION

The school is not serving its primary function until it has helped the young citizen to acquire skill in the use of the techniques for democratic action and problem solving: *group planning, using adult sources of information, cooperative action, and evaluation of results.* These are not enough, however, unless he has identified his own welfare with that of the community. Only through carefully planned experiences in serving the community will he come to realize that what threatens

society threatens him, and that what benefits society benefits him.

We have touched on the areas in which significant problems may be found. What makes a problem significant to an adolescent?

It is important to recognize that the adolescent is by nature interested in the problems of society. He is concerned by evidences of unfairness, injustice, and the inconsistencies in our social organization. He is in the process of making up his mind about right and wrong; testing the ideal by the real. It follows that the adolescent, even more than the somewhat sophisticated adult, is concerned:

1. Whenever social needs, or social goals, are not consistent with social realities. He seeks guidance and information that will help him in finding a consistent value system to give him security.

2. Where society is unable to reach a consensus as to the proper solution or the right policy in dealing with some aspect of social dynamics. This is heightened today by the fact that the adolescent has a personal stake in the prospects of World War III.

3. When important differences of opinion exist in the culture. Every classroom represents, in microcosm, these variations in public opinion.

4. When the individual, facing divergent social pressures, seeks direction. The adolescent is typically concerned over "what is the right thing to do." Usually this indicates a significant personal problem. Often it offers an approach into a problem that is well worth studying.

ORGANIZING THE CLASSROOM

A classroom that is organized around significant problems cannot limit its activities to studying the textbook and listening to lectures. Its sources of information must include whatever will lead to the understanding of current problems. The pupil must learn to utilize all the same sources of information as are available to the adult. An important part of his education lies in learning to use them wisely. He must learn to *want* to obtain a variety of points of view. This is an aspect of adult literacy that can be developed only under guidance in the real situation.

In a study of significant problems designed to develop problem-solving ability, classroom procedures must be adapted both to the purposes to be served, and the materials that are utilized. There is the further necessity for organizing the classroom for effective administration of the materials, on the bulletin boards and through the library and convenient reading tables. Classroom activities will include teacher-pupil planning, effective discussion procedures, effective procedures for presenting data for group consideration, and cooperative organization for group activity. Student leadership and group responsibility are typical characteristics of classes where the major emphasis is on learning to solve current problems.

Meeting the Challenge of the Times—

Present Trends in Philippine Education

CECILIO PUTONG

In the News Bulletin

EDUCATION in the Philippines is today passing through a period of transition. Ideas and theories which have held sway over Filipino pedagogical thought for sometime now and which have, therefore, come to acquire some sort of halo about them are being carefully re-examined. New things are being tried out. Experimentation is going on in a number of provinces to determine the validity of this or that practice, whether proposed or actual.

This state of affairs is all to the good. In an age characterized by change, the school as a social institution cannot afford to remain static. It has to meet the challenge of the times if it is to be in tight grip with the society it is supposed to serve. Its practices have to change from time to time to suit the new circumstances.

The question naturally comes up, whither are we tending? What are the trends? We shall mention a few. In the first place, there seems to be a trend toward decentralization—at least insofar as the development of the curriculum is concerned. This is significant in a school system which is highly centralized and which has been so ever since its establishment 50 years ago. Heretofore, curriculum materials were developed by experts in the central office of the bureau of public schools in Manila. Considering the lack of preparation of the great bulk of our teachers then, this would seem to have been the best policy to follow. Curriculum development is a difficult, if not a delicate, job and cannot very well be entrusted to people who lack the necessary background for the work and do not understand the principles underlying it.

Cecilio Putong is Undersecretary of Education in the Republic of the Philippines. *Reported from the* News Bulletin of the Institute of International Education, *XXVII (January 1, 1952), 5–6.*

Today, however, more and more teachers have been graduated from our normal schools and colleges of education. Perhaps the time is ripe for a change of policy. Possibly curriculum development may now be undertaken in the different schools by the teachers, parents, and even children working together. This is the new idea our teachers read about in American journals or bring home after completing their studies in the United States. It is believed, however, that the implementation of this new policy should be gradual. It should not proceed any faster than we can find teachers who can be depended on to do it satisfac-

torily and with a minimum of disruption of the program.

Granting that the teachers are now prepared for this work, we can see a two-fold value to this change of policy: it is likely to result in a curriculum that is closely adapted to local conditions and needs, and it will provide an excellent inservice training for the teachers concerned.

Greater attention is being given today to child guidance. Although it is true that some guidance work was attempted before the war, yet it was weak and rather desultory. Not having had the desired preparation, teachers had to grope as they tackled the work assigned to them. The many evidences of maladjustment and delinquency among our children which appeared after the Pacific war have created a strong demand for greater emphasis on child guidance. Answering the challenge, a number of teacher-education institutions offered courses in guidance and counseling, either as separate courses or in connection with other courses. Today more systematic guidance and counseling work is being done in our schools, either by the ordinary classroom teachers themselves or with the help of special guidance teachers.

Still another trend which promises to be of far-reaching importance in the Philippines is the community improvement program that is being undertaken by the different public schools throughout the country under the inspiration and leadership of the teachers. On the principle that a school, to be of the greatest usefulness, must not be an ivory tower set apart from the community, our schools are today being conducted as community schools. Teachers serve as leaders in their respective communities, organizing the people into committees to plan and undertake the different community projects that they themselves consider urgent. But the teachers are always on hand to give the needed guidance, advice and encouragement.

Finally, all high schools in the country, public and private, are now providing work experience for their students, a departure from the traditional academic curriculum. In the public high schools, vocational courses are given in all years. In this way, every boy and girl who is graduated from high school will have some training in habits of work. It is obvious that such training will be good for the individual as well as for the nation. It will also serve to implement the objective of education in regard to the development of vocational efficiency as laid down in the Philippine Constitution.

These trends indicate the main directions in which education in the Philippines is moving. Experimentation is going on, the result of which will determine what further changes will be desirable. Needless to say, it is well to be reasonably certain of our ground when we propose a change, for we cannot afford to gamble on the future of the rising generation. Change is good only if it means progress. •

Quality Still Counts

What Mathematics Shall We Teach in the Fourth Year of High School?

C. C. MacDuffee

In The Mathematics Teacher

I THINK I might as well start right out with a statement of what I think should be the content of the fourth year of mathematics in high school. I think it should be a course in which advanced algebra and the rudiments of analytic geometry are integrated, and which contains a few of the essential ideas of calculus in the second semester.

You are probably saying to yourselves that this is not a new suggestion, and I know that it is not. It has been and is being offered in many of the forward-looking schools of the nation. But too often mathematics in the fourth year of high school is just a review, with the problems a little harder and a little longer. This is not a stimulating point of view.

I believe that analytic geometry can be used to illustrate and motivate a course in algebra if the analytics is given in small doses well diluted with algebra. The theory of straight lines and planes is the best possible illustration of linear systems of equations and determinants. Circles and other conics provide laboratory material for all properties of quadratics which are usually considered. Accompanied by geometric illustrations, the abstract concepts of algebra become alive and obvious.

This course in analytics should consist of more than the mere plotting of curves. Much curve plotting is now being done in fourth-year mathematics courses and a little of it is of course desirable. But there is no reason to shy away from the theorems and proofs of analytic geometry. It is to the theoretical side of the subject that the students' minds must be adjusted if the transition from high school to college mathematics is to be made easier.

C. C. MacDuffee is a professor of mathematics at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. *Reported from* The Mathematics Teacher, *XLV (January, 1952), 1–5, 9.*

The amount of calculus to be introduced in the second semester would be minute. It would consist of merely finding tangents to particular conics, and perhaps a few areas, problems which date back to the pre-Newtonian period in mathematics, but problems which prepared the way for calculus.

At the present time many students find the first year of college mathematics quite difficult. The pace in college is faster than in high school, and the standards are frequently higher. There is no time to go over a topic a second time. These differences in teaching technique

frequently disconcert a freshman. If the student could begin his college course with some understanding of the college point of view he could immediately begin to get something out of his mathematics. Colleges and the high schools should work together in trying to ease the jolt which many students receive in passing from the high school to the university. One of the worst of these jolts occurs in the field of mathematics and the course which I am advocating is certainly an excellent shock absorber.

Why is it that our high-school mathematics program seems to run out of gas in its third year? I do not pretend to know the complete answer. It is true that some teachers do not have the preparation necessary to teach analytic geometry and calculus to high-school seniors. There are, however, many who are quite capable and would doubtless be eager to do it. Another road block is the attitude of many principals, superintendents, and vocational guidance directors toward mathematics. Most of them seem to regard it as Calvin Coolidge's minister regarded sin. They are against it. It makes trouble for many students; these students are unhappy, their parents are unhappy, and consequently the principal is unhappy. Therefore, let us all be happy and throw out mathematics.

There is an occasional note in modern educational theory that disturbs me greatly. It is a note of defeatism. It seems to imply that most of our American students are ineducable and that we should not try to teach them anything more than they need to know to live and eat and reproduce their kind. To the contrary, a large share of our students would profit from a curriculum designed for the moderately gifted. Many of them are by no means as dumb as they appear. They are not as dumb as they believe themselves to be, their opinion of their own dumbness strengthened frequently by guidance directors, principals, and exasperated teachers.

It is clear that teachers are not always creating the optimum atmosphere for scholarship within their schools. Perhaps it is not the fault of the teachers, for traditions in the home are frequently dismal. But teachers are not always blameless. There are teachers who are not scholars. They were not scholars while they were in college and they have not been since converted.

It is the function of the teacher to mold opinion in the school and in the community and to uphold the ideal of scholarship in a world fast becoming superficial. In every school there are a few superior students, necessarily sensitive children because they are superior, who need the guidance of their teachers, who will respond greedily to it, and who will in after years become the pride of the school that produced them. They are now the forgotten element in the school population in an age when mediocrity is held up as the ideal. Effort spent in the education and guidance of such children is rewarded a hundredfold.

Never before has mathematics played quite so fundamental a role in civilization as it does now. We are now embarked on the age of science, and modern science is built on a foundation of mathematics. Every graduate student in chemistry must have calculus, and physicists must go much beyond it. Nuclear physics is guided by abstract mathematical concepts, theory coming before experiment. When the first bomb exploded at Los Alamos, the power of abstract mathematical procedure was dramatically attested.

In view of these undeniable facts, one would reasonably assume that the growing importance of mathematics in our world would be reflected in an intensification of its study in grade and high school. Arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry are still the basic studies on which the higher varieties have to be built, and very few persons who have mastered them ever express regret over a wasted life. On the other hand, I have heard many a college student mourn because of the short-sightedness of a high-school guidance director who told him that mathematics was no longer the vogue.

The proponents of mathematics in the high schools have not been very vigorous in defending their subject. Perhaps they thought their case was so strong that no defense was necessary. This was a perfectly logical point of view, but our age is not a logical one. Selfstyled educational experts have stated that mathematics is not important and no one has bothered to reply. I hope that the time has now arrived when suggestions for the further curtailment of mathematics in our high schools will be met by the counterclaim that not less but much more must be taught.

Mathematics is an essential part of our national life as never before. Industry is eager this year to acquire trained mathematicians. More of your Ph.D.'s this year are going into industry than into teaching positions. These will be the men at the top. Below them will be computers and others who have a college degree with a major in mathematics.

Where does the high-school graduate who has not gone to college fit into this picture? I cannot conceive that mathematics will do him any harm. I recall one young high-school graduate in the shops whose ambition had transcended his lack of money to go to college. He studied calculus and electricity all by himself and was moving up the ladder in the employ of his company faster than some of the other young men with engineering degrees.

It is one of the anomalies of our American culture that we as a people do not understand the foundations on which this culture is built. We talk of mass education and then give our students the shell instead of the substance. We spend hours on end discussing the problems of democracy, problems for which no living man has an answer, at the sacrifice of the precise knowledge which keeps us a nation among the free peoples of the earth. •

Some Contrary Evidence

Correlations Between Reading Factors and IQ

WALTER BARBE and WERNER GRILK

In School and Society

Walter Barbe is from Kent State University, Kent, Ohio, and Werner Grilk is from Baylor University, Waco, Texas. Reported from School and Society, *LXXV (March 1, 1952), 134–36.*

IT is a well-recognized fact that results of group intelligence tests are heavily influenced by the reading ability of the pupils taking the test. It is true that, if the poor reader is going to be penalized on an intelligence test, then the superior reader will be given an added boost. This is unimportant actually, for the classroom teacher will do little if any harm by thinking that the pupil is more intelligent than standardized tests should actually indicate. The danger lies in not realizing the potentialities of a poor reader who is labelled with a low IQ.

In a study made by the authors an effort was made to determine the correlation between the various factors in reading ability and IQ. Fifty-two tenth-grade pupils were used in the study. A low positive correlation was found between reading rate and the IQ. It was not a statistically significant correlation. This was an unexpected result. The main reason for believing that the poor reader is penalized on a group intelligence test is primarily that he is not able to cover as much of the material in the limited time allowed. Since this is the only correlation that is not significant, it would indicate that reading rate should not have been a factor to consider in past studies of raising the IQ by improving reading. It certainly indicates the need for further research.

The correlation between intelligence and reading comprehension and paragraph comprehension was +.55 and +.64. Both correlations were significant. These results are as would be expected. The ability to comprehend or understand is certainly a part of intelligence. Word meaning and sentence meaning were found to have correlations of +.69 and +.64 with the IQ, respectively. Since vocabulary is considered the best single measure of intelligence, it is to be expected that these correlations would be high. Directed reading, which involves being able to follow directions, certainly an aspect of intelligence, was found to have a correlation of +.65 with the IQ. The correlation between the total reading score and IQ was found to be +.72.

It is suggested as a hypothesis for further study that reading rate may not be as important a factor in group intelligence tests as was previously thought. •

Projects Pay Off!

Conservation Begins in the Elementary School

EDGAR A. STANTON

In NEA Journal

CONSERVATION has a place in the elementary school. Its complexity and its significance demand that children begin to study it early in their lives. Because of the importance of basic facts and because incidental teaching may be neglected, I think conservation can best be taught by units.

When we consider the relationship of conservation to natural resources, we realize that conservation is a part of the science program. But when we consider conservation's relationship to man's activities, we realize it is also a part of the social-studies program. The following paragraphs describe units which seemed successful from both scientific and social viewpoints.

Thoughtless picking has greatly reduced the wild flowers of the Seattle, Washington, area. One group of young children obtained from the University of Washington a list of species near extinction. They studied these flowers, their relationship to birds and insects, and their use as ground cover. Then they visited nearby gardens where wild flowers were naturalized. They learned that outdoor beauty can be enjoyed by everyone without destroying it.

Another class—of sixth-graders—became interested in forestry.

Edgar A. Stanton is Principal of Gatewood Elementary School, Seattle, Washington. Reported from the NEA Journal, *XLI (March, 1952), 156–57.*

They wrote for information to the university, the district forester, and commercial organizations. They obtained seedlings, which they planted in terrariums in their room. Later the seedlings were exhibited at the study conference of the Association for Childhood Education in Seattle. Then the children replanted the trees in their own yards.

Meanwhile the Seattle Garden Club heard of the work of this class and paid for a 60-mile trip to the Charles Lathrop Pack Demonstration Forest at La Grand, Washington. Imagine the excitement when these 32 children boarded the bus! At the forest they hiked along trails, climbed the watch tower, studied environmental relationships from rocks to fir trees, visited the nursery and observed experiments. Will these boys and girls ever forget their forestry unit?

This fall a sixth grade at Crown Hill School decided to study soils. The students found out how soils are formed. They separated the different types of soil by letting them

settle in water. One boy whose father is in the fertilizer business brought samples to school and explained what the various types did for plants.

The children studied water movement in the soil. They observed the difference in the amount of water that flows from a bare mound of dirt and from one covered with sod. They studied the surface of the ground after a rain.

After that their teacher showed them two films which explain how life depends on the soil. In their geography studies they discovered that most of the soil of New England is thin like that of their own district. Strip farming and contour plowing and their effects were considered. The class concluded that care of soil is not only the farmer's problem but the concern of all.

Each year the principal of the Montlake School receives the usual complaints about children picking flowers and making paths across lawns. One year the sixth-graders noticed that "young" children were making the usual bare spots on the school lawn. They talked to their teacher who suggested they might like to study plants and shrubs to see what they could learn.

First the boys and girls built a fence to keep small children off the bare patches, which they reseeded. Then they took up the study of the green covering of the earth and its importance. As one result they made a set of several dozen slides. These slides demonstrated that plant life is essential to other life on earth, illustrated the problem of soil erosion, revealed how plants make the earth beautiful, pictured a home before and after planting the yard, and showed the patches on their own school grounds. These slides were then exhibited at a school assembly.

Finally the children presented a play concerning their project. It began with the complaints received by their principal, and ended with a telephone call commending the children for their changed attitude. The play was produced before members of the PTA, who agreed that learning can influence conduct.

Regional problems, as well as the broader aspects of conservation are also discussed in order to give the pupils an insight into the actual methods used in solving them. Several schools have heard representatives of an international fishery commission discuss the history of its work. They told the children how members of the commission from Canada and the United States made a study and drew up regulations covering open and closed seasons and quotas regarding the great halibut and salmon fisheries of the Northwest. They further explained how this study is believed to have put the halibut fishery on a sustained yield basis.

Conservation has great meaning for the happiness and wealth of our citizens. It has a scientific basis, but its final results depend on the activity of man. By studying units on conservation in elementary school, young people can begin to understand these important scientific-social relationships.

★With Education in Washington★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

500,000 Forgotten Children.—The House of Representatives cut a wide swath in the 1953 educational budgets, making a lot of educators unhappy. In that lot are vocational educators, because the House eliminated a $900,000 request for distributive education; school health specialists, because the House eliminated a $250,000 request to carry on research in fluoridation of water; scientists, because the House cut a $15,000,000 request for the Science Foundation to $3,500,000; superintendents of war-impacted districts, because the House whittled down a $150,000,000 request to $135,000,000 for school construction.

But what most aroused the dander of all educators was elimination of the smidgen request for $181,000. This sum was to be used to study the educational needs of children whose families follow the crops. With this sum the federal government was planning to arouse the states to meet their obligations to the migrant children and to recommend higher standards for their education.

Today, migrant children are among the most undereducated in the country. They are retarded from two to five years compared to other school children. They are frequently ill-fed. Worse, they are followed by feelings of inferiority and resentment. Wherever they arrive with their families—whether to pick beets in Colorado or tomatoes in New Jersey—they are outcasts.

The House leadership agreed that migrant children represent a social problem. But in the words of Rep. Fogarty (D., R.I.), "This is no time to start a new program." On the other hand, Washington educators believe it is and are continuing their fight for this neglected group of children, estimated to number from 500,000 to 1,000,000.

Facilities Survey Results.—The walls, doors, and furniture of today's schools are carved with the initials of the parents whose children are now using those buildings.

This sums up the age and condition of a large proportion of America's schoolhouses. But for those who want statistics rather than descriptive phases, they, too, are available for the first time as a result of the nation's first school facilities survey. Here are some sample figures:

Two-fifths of all school buildings in 25 states are more than 30 years old and 16 percent are more than 50 years old.

Elementary-school buildings are substantially older than high schools; 45 percent being more than 30 years old, as compared to 20 percent for the latter.

Nearly 94 percent of all elementary and secondary schools do not have art rooms; 70 percent do not have music rooms; 49 percent do

not have shops; 40 percent do not have homemaking rooms.

Twenty percent of all schoolhouses do not meet all fire safety regulations usually thought desirable.

But to come back to the carved initials . . . that is not what makes a building obsolescent or unusable. In England the initials of several generations are carved on desks, yet plant and equipment remain adequate. What heightens the need for new school buildings in the United States are changes in the curriculum; public demand for new services; increased emphasis on activity programs; introduction of guidance and counselling services with their demand for new office space and facilities; and the spreading use of audio-visual aids, seldom provided for even in buildings built ten years ago.

Says Dr. Ray Hamon, Office of Education author of the survey: "The modern emphasis on learning by doing implies larger spaces, better lighted and heated, furnished with equipment to encourage boys and girls to try things themselves rather than sit passively by to hear and read."

No Oil for Education.—The oil-for-education dream flickered and died. Death came on April 2, as 47 senators voted to kill the bold plan of Senator Hill and his score of supporters. At the final vote the score were joined by 16 others who believed that undersea minerals should become the possession of the United States and should be used to help schools, colleges, and universities. But they were not enough.

The striking fact about the oil-for-education measure is that it aroused only feeble interest among educators. Congressional mail favoring it was light. Educational organizations gave it only token support. On the other hand, educators from California, Texas, and Louisiana bombarded Congress with resolutions opposing it.

According to Senator Hill there was within reach of educators a 40-billion dollar bonanza which could have been used to help build new schools, raise teachers' pay, provide scholarships for needy youth, and to set new research programs into action.

The dollars would have come from the sale of oil, gas or other wealth which lies not in the tidelands but in the open ocean, three miles away from state shorelines. But California, Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Florida did not want Uncle Sam's dominion to extend that close to their shores. Their senators banded together and with little effort came out victorious against the dream of Mr. Hill and his too-few supporters.

Sources of Teachers.—Where is a superintendent to get the teachers he needs?

From many sources, says the National Commission on Teacher Education. This unit of the NEA has just completed a survey of teacher

supply and demand in the United States. Even though the study shows a sharp need for elementary teachers, yet all is not hopeless. There are at least four major sources of teachers, the Commission says, for the school administrator to investigate:

1. There are many high-school teachers who cannot find jobs in their special fields. They could be reconverted for service in elementary classrooms.

2. The barrel has been scraped for former teachers who have left the classroom because higher costs of living prompted them to seek new employment. However, in some instances, former teachers could be persuaded to return when they find that their grown-up children no longer make their presence at home imperative.

3. Returning veterans offer a fruitful source. Many of this group, especially college graduates, had made no job commitments before entering the armed services and could be encouraged to join the teaching profession.

4. College graduates without professional preparation could be easily trained through "conversion programs," through apprentice experiences, or intensive on-the-job training.

"But to retain one of the teachers who is already in service and who has proved her ability is far more important than to gain a new candidate from any other source," says the Commission.

Vocational Division Upheaval.—The aftermath of the Hardy Report (Congressional subcommittee that criticized the administration of the Smith-Hughes and George-Barden Acts by the Vocational Division of the U. S. Office of Education) has landed on the Office of Education with drastic effect. The Hardy Report plus Congress' unwillingness to appropriate funds for all the services the vocational division feels necessary has resulted in a series of major surgical operations in the division.

First is the fact that Raymond W. Gregory is no longer assistant commissioner for vocational education. His place has been taken (for the time being) by Ward P. Beard, veteran vocational educator. Dr. Gregory has been reassigned to be "special assistant to the commissioner," probably to work on international aspects of vocational education.

Second is the announcement by Commissioner McGrath that due to a cut of $50,000 in USOE appropriations for 1953 the guidance services of the vocational division will be wiped out, eliminating the office that was so ably served for many years by Harry Jager and Walter Greenleaf.

And, third, because Congress has all but eliminated money for business education, McGrath says he is forced to dismantle part of the business-education service.

No federal agency can ignore the kind of stinging rebuke that Rep. Hardy and his investigators handed

the vocational division. Commissioner McGrath took the committee criticisms seriously and Congress did also. This fact came out when the House appropriations subcommittee acted on the 1953 vocational-education budget. The chairman of that group, Rep. Fogarty, clearly had in mind the weaknesses revealed by the Hardy Report when he said that the money granted for 1953 should be used to complete a thorough study of the program of each state "with the purpose not only of determining where the states may have deficiencies but also to determine where there may be weak points in the administration at the federal level."

Then Mr. Fogarty added words the significance of which were clear to everyone in the Office of Education: "The (appropriation) committee expects to go into this matter again when the next request for funds is before it." In other words, the 1954 budget depended on how well Mr. McGrath could prove that he had corrected the errors of the vocational division's past.

Pan American Vocational Seminar.—A college campus near the Capital may be the point of origin for Latin America's tardy industrial revolution.

Educators in Washington are agog over a six-week conference which will bring to College Park, Maryland, men and women from every South American country. The affair is officially listed as the Inter-American Seminar on Vocational Education. Its purpose is to describe and demonstrate before Latin American officials how vocational education has helped the United States become powerful industrially; and how it can unlock the natural riches of South America.

Preparations for the meeting have been going on for more than a year. During that time, each country has looked at its own vocational education system. The findings are dismal. Only Argentina, Brazil, and Chile have the rudiments of a vocational and technical education system. The rest of Latin America has a few privately operated technical schools, but little or nothing for the common people. Furthermore, powerful obstacles exist to setting up vocational education systems in our neighboring countries to the South.

First, the vast majority of people can't read, write, or cipher. Second, the secondary schools are immersed in a verbalistic education from which it is hard to dislodge them. Third, strong prejudices exist against the technical trades. Manual labor is low on the scale of Latin American values.

The College Park conference, therefore, will have to dramatize not only that vocational education may mean the beginning of better living for the vast numbers of Latin Americans. It will also have to make a psychological attack on long-established prejudices. If the conference succeeds, it will lay the foundation for an industrial revolution long overdue, say Pan American Union officials. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENTS:

Scranton, Pa.: **Richard F. McNichols,** formerly principal of North Scranton Junior High School.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Rollins College, Winter Park, Fla.: **Hugh F. McKean** has been named president to succeed **Paul A. Wagner.**

New Mexico Western College, Silver City: **J. Cloyd Miller,** superintendent of schools, Deming, New Mexico, has been named president. He is also president of the NEA.

Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N. J.: **Lewis Webster Jones** has been inaugurated as the college's 15th president. He was formerly president of the University of Arkansas.

State College, Pullman, Wash.: **Charles Clement French** has been named president. He was formerly dean of the college, Texas A & M.

Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine: **James S. Coles** has been appointed president to succeed **Kenneth C. M. Sills** who is retiring.

New Jersey State Teachers College, Glassboro: **Thomas E. Robinson** has been appointed president to succeed **Edgar F. Bunce** who is retiring.

State University Teachers College, Cortland, N. Y.: **Francis J. Moench** has been named president. He was formerly director of training at the college.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

George W. Denemark, assistant professor of education, Boston University, has been named executive secretary of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the NEA.

Stuart Anderson has accepted the post of director of industrial education in Lima, Peru, with the Institute of Inter-American Affairs. He was formerly associate professor of education at the Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wis.

Henry H. Hill, president, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn., was elected chairman of the Educational Policies Commission of the NEA, and **William Jansen,** superintendent of the New York City schools, was named vice-chairman.

Philip A. Knowlton, editor-in-chief, educational department, the Macmillan Company, has retired. The department is now under the direction of **Martin L. Robertson,** managing editor, and **Morgan L. Walters,** associate editor.

RECENT DEATHS:

John H. Dyer, superintendent of the Scranton, Pa., public schools.

Elias Lyman, Jr., former acting president of the University of Vermont, at 61 years of age.

Beverly Oden Skinner, former Ohio state director of education, at 77 years.

Albert Samuel Cook, retired state superintendent of schools, Maryland, at 79 years of age.

Frederick John Sales, professor of education, University of Redlands, Calif., at 51 years of age.

Paul Klapper, president emeritus, Queens College, Flushing, N. Y., at 66 years.

Lambert Lincoln Jackson, former New Jersey state commissioner of secondary education, at 81 years.

Frederic Rutherford Hamilton, former president of Bradley University, Peoria, Ill., at 70 years.

Tristram Walker Metcalfe, president, Long Island University, Brooklyn, N. Y., at 71 years of age.

Charles Shoemaker Morris, president, San Mateo, California, Junior College, at 64 years.

George W. Costerisan, professor of education, State Teachers College, Wayne, Nebraska.

Released Time Upheld

THE Supreme Court, in a 6-3 decision last month, upheld the constitutionality of New York City's

"released time" program. The program, which allows pupils to be released on written permission from their parents for one hour a week religious instruction away from school property, was declared not to violate the doctrine of the separation of church and state.

Justice William O. Douglas, author of the majority opinion, held that the New York plan did not violate the constitutional prohibitions on laws "respecting an establishment of religion" or the "free exercise" thereof. He found, too, that there was no coercion in the program.

Concurring with Mr. Douglas in the majority opinion were Chief Justice Fred M. Vinson and Justices Stanley Reed, Harold H. Burton, Tom C. Clark, and Sherman Minton. Mr. Douglas insisted that the New York plan was different from the religious education project of the Champaign, Illinois, schools which was declared unconstitutional by the Court in 1948. In Champaign, classrooms were turned over to religious instructors, and the high court accordingly opposed this use of tax-supported property for disseminating religious training. However, the New York program, he said, involved neither religious instruction in public-school classrooms nor expenditure of public funds.

He continued, "The First Amendment, however, does not say that in every and all respects there shall be a separation of church and state. Rather it studiously defines the manner, the specific ways, in which there shall be no concert or union or dependency one on the other. That is the common sense of the matter."

In conclusion, he declared, "We follow the McCollum case. But we cannot expand it to cover the present released time program unless separation of church and state means that public institutions can make no adjustments of their schedules to accommodate the religious needs of the people. We cannot read into the Bill of Rights such a philosophy of hostility to religion."

Sharply differing from this interpretation of the First Amendment and the majority's definition of the separation of the church and state, Justices Robert H. Jackson, Felix Frankfurter, and Hugo L. Black criticized the majority for differentiating the McCollum case from the New York issue. Justice Jackson said the New York program involved coercion in that "it serves as a temporary jail for a pupil who will not go to church." He went on to say, "The day that this country ceases to be free for irreligion it will cease to be free for religion—except for the sect that can win political power."

Justice Frankfurter agreed with Justice Jackson's dissent and added, "The unwillingness of the promoters of this movement to dispense with such use of the public schools betrays a surprising want of confidence in the inherent power of the various faiths to draw children to outside sectarian classes—an attitude that hardly reflects the faith

of the greatest religious spirits."

Justice Black, in his dissenting opinion, declared that if the released-time plan is followed the state affords sectarian groups invaluable aid, and thus violates the principle of separation. If this is done then, "State help to religion injects political and party prejudices into a holy field. It too often substitutes force for prayer, hate for love, and persecution for persuasion."

More Steel (?)

THE Defense Production Authority announced that steel allotments for educational construction during the third quarter of 1952, which starts July 1, have been increased by 17,000 tons. This 13 percent increase brings the total amount available to schoolmen to 145,000 tons. Of this, 115,000 tons have been earmarked by the United States Office of Education for elementary- and secondary-school construction. The remaining 30,000 tons are scheduled to be used for higher education and libraries.

Federal Security Agency Administrator, Oscar Ewing estimated that this increase would give "the green light" to construction of approximately 500 projects that had been deferred because of lack of materials. The change in regulations, however, that should be of most aid to educators is that 40,000 tons of the steel allotted may be in the form of structural shapes, an increase in this classification of 37 percent over the second quarter.

Copper and aluminum are still scarce and the allotment for these materials remains essentially the same as before.

Along with the increase in tonnage, red tape in getting steel has been cut. For elementary- and secondary-school projects requiring less than a total of 50 tons, "self-certification" is authorized. Under this plan, beginning July 1, school administrators may use up to 50 tons of carbon steel per project if at least 50 percent of the space is for classrooms.

The more liberal allotments of steel reflect an anticipated easement in supply and continued high level production. However, since this announcement by the Defense Production Authority, the overruling of the seizure order, the strike, and the ban on civilian shipments have, at least temporarily, changed the picture. However, it may change again by July 1.

Arkansas Controversy

THE Ford Foundation's proposed grant of up to $2 million a year for as many as ten years to the state of Arkansas to finance a plan of teacher training has become the center of a controversy that is rapidly spreading beyond the boundaries of the state.

The proponents of the plan which calls for four-year general education and one-year teacher internship claim that it will be an experiment worked out by Arkansas educators themselves. The opponents, among them the American Association of Colleges for Teacher

Education, claim that it is not an "experiment" but a "uniform reorganization" of teacher training that would be arbitrarily imposed on the people of Arkansas by offering highly attractive financial support. The Association adds, "An untried pattern of education thus accepted is not only unsound, but dangerous." The plan itself, they assert, smacks of "eighteenth-century" methods.

Generally speaking, in Arkansas itself, the plan has been warmly greeted by small liberal-arts colleges who at present do little teacher training. It has been eyed cautiously and doubtfully by the state-supported institutions, six of which have strong teacher-training departments. The confusion has been increased by the fact that the Ford people have been pushing it so rapidly; the check for the first $85,000 has been received already.

Teacher Shortage

QUALIFIED elementary-school teachers numbering 160,000 will be needed throughout the nation this year. But only 32,443 are expected to graduate. These figures are the results of surveys by the NEA and the Office of Education. Underlying the growing shortage in the elementary field is a 50 percent expansion in enrolments. Some graduates who prepared for secondary-school teaching can be "converted," but this would supply only about 12,000 teachers at the most. Spiraling consumer prices which literally gave every teacher in our country a 9 percent salary cut doesn't make the job easier of persuading more young men and women to enter the profession.

New Magazine

A NEW monthly publication, *Adult Leadership,* for the adult-education movement, was launched this month. Published by the Adult Education Association, the magazine was made possible by a grant of $94,000 from the Fund for Adult Education, an independent organization established by the Ford Foundation. The magazine's purpose is "to train citizen-leaders," according to Malcolm S. Knowles, administrative coordinator of AEA.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

May 19-21, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Indianapolis.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

June 24-27, American Home Economics Association, Atlantic City, N.J.

June 25-28, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Kalamazoo, Mich.

June 26-July 1, NEA Department of Elementary-School Principals, Detroit.

June 30, NEA Department of Classroom Teachers, Detroit.

June 30-July 5, National Education Association, Detroit.

Aug. 18-22, National Conference on Safety Education in Elementary Schools, Bloomington, Ind.

New Educational Materials

Education and American Civilization. George S. Counts. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xi + 491. $3.75.

Beginning with an exposition of the need for better education in this critical period in the evolution of our civilization, Professor Counts outlines in detail the development of our technological and scientific rise. He analyzes American values and sets up a philosophic basis for education in the emerging industrial age. He is critical of the forces which tend to stifle the development of education and calls on society to buttress the schools and the teachers with greater understanding and support. Critics of the economic and political views of Counts will find little to alarm them in this volume which should serve to set the record straight on a matter that has been badly misrepresented.

The Public Administration of American Schools. Van Miller and Willard B. Spalding. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1952. Pp. xv + 606. $4.60.

Designed as a college textbook in public-school administration, this volume will also be found useful by the school superintendent and the interested lay citizens as it contains much background material as well as suggestions for the day-to-day administration of the schools. The book is divided into three sections: Public Education in Our American Culture, The Community Task of School Administration, and The Professional Job of Educational Administration. Democratic philosophy and procedure are emphasized throughout by the authors who have written a book which will give insight into problems.

The Use of Resources in Education. Elsie Ripley Clapp. New York: Harper and Bros., 1952. Pp. xvi + 333. $4.00.

This book describes the means employed to utilize the sometimes latent resources available in a community to improve educational facilities and methods. The author further recites experiences on how these resources were developed in two somewhat different teaching situations, and how such resources were found in unexpected places. Enlisting the help of the entire community in providing richer learning experiences helped, not only the children, but their parents as well. Philosophy and principles that should guide resource use, as well as practical methods, are explained.

Secondary Science Education. Harrington Wells. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952. Pp. xi + 367. $4.50.

Orientation with regard to activities and objectives in teaching secondary-school science is the aim of this book. Basic knowledge of the physical and biological sciences is assumed. Coordination between the biological and physical sciences is stressed as is the development of a functional community-industry correlation with the teaching of science. The social implications of the different aspects of science are well explained. Practical programs of instruction for teaching general science, biology, botany, zoology, chemistry, and physics are included to help the teacher plan his own program. Particularly useful are the pointers on simplifying some of the more complex aspects of the sciences and adapting them to the abilities and interests of secondary-school students. Included is a 66-page resource-aid section listing sources of audio-visual aids, pamphlets, equipment and supplies, and bibliography of reference materials.

Social Studies in the Secondary School. Clarence D. Samford and Eugene Cottle. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952. Pp. ix + 376. $4.25.

Specific classroom procedures are stressed in this book rather than the philosophy and history behind those procedures. By doing this, the authors hope to give the student teacher or the teacher in the field the latest techniques of planning a successful social-studies program. Over-all objectives, policies, and philosophies are not omitted entirely however, but are rather briefly discussed. Core curriculum methods, problems of a beginning social-studies teacher, audio-visual aids, measurement and evaluation, and the use of resource material are covered.

The Art of Book Reading. Stella S. Center. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1952. Pp. xix + 298. $3.50.

There is room for improvement in everyone's reading claims the author. This book is aimed at the college student or adult who wishes to sharpen his reading skills, and is intended to serve as a practical guide in planning a personal reading-improvement program. It is a compilation of the procedures found most useful in an adult reading class taught by the author at New York University. Vocabulary building, increasing speed, and improvement in comprehension of the different types of literature, such as the novel, poetry, and nonfiction, are discussed. Special attention is given to the problem of understanding an author's purpose and his implications of meaning.

Teaching Elementary Reading. Miles A. Tinker. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. Pp. ix + 351. $3.25.

Based on a developmental philosophy, this book stresses reading readiness and the beginning of the reading skill in the first grade. A moderate viewpoint on such questions as verbal vs. silent reading and the use of mechanical devices to develop speed characterize the book. The last half of the volume is devoted to a discussion of various developmental phases that are relevant to all grade levels and to reading instruction in grades two through six.

World Horizons for Teachers. Leonard S. Kenworthy. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xii + 141. $3.25.

In an endeavor to meet one of the great crises of our age, the author here depicts what schools have done and can do to help students understand the attempts that are being made to create a world community based on understanding and the recognition of human rights. Much of the book covers types of preservice and inservice training that are being carried on in an effort to develop a world-mindedness on the part of teachers. The appendix contains a helpful check list of activities and the addresses of various organizations, agencies, and information services from which material may be obtained.

Practical Guidance Methods for Principals and Teachers. Glyn Morris. New York: Harper and Bros., 1952. Pp. xxi + 266. $3.75.

Detailed records of actual sessions were utilized as reference material to make this book a realistic description and record of guidance problems and methods used in solving them in a small high school with a low budget and without specialized staff help. Cooperative methods developed between principal and teachers in working through group procedures, record systems, interviews, and case conferences are described. Mistakes

and failures are explained and evaluated to enable others to avoid the same pitfalls.

Other Material Received:

Secondary Education

The Growth of Democracy. Edna McGuire and Don C. Rogers. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. 428. $2.40. This is the latest edition of the seventh-grade text of the Democracy series.

Creative Reading. Miller and DeBoer. Seymour, Ind.: Graessle-Mercer Co., 1951. Pp. 66. 75c. A reading-improvement guide.

Guidance

Careers for Tomorrow. Carrington Shields. Washington, D. C.: Civic Education Service, Inc., 1952. Pp. 179. $1.50. A description of approximately 100 occupations and their educational and other requirements, plus some pointers on making a choice.

Your Behavior Problems, Life with Brothers and Sisters, and **Helping Children Understand Sex** are latest of a series of guidance booklets published by Science Research Associates of Chicago. Price: 40c each.

Understanding Ourselves. Helen Shacter. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. 124. 70c. A personality-development guide for secondary-school pupils.

General

Everyman's United Nations. UN Department of Public Information. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. 388. $1.50. A reference to the structure, functions, and work of the United Nations. Third Edition.

Evaluative Criteria and Standards. The Pennsylvania Association of Private Academic Schools, Bryn Mawr, Pa. Pp. 78. $1.00. A workbook for rating facilities and teaching methods.

The American Educational Catalog. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1952. Pp. 152. $1.00. An index to elementary through senior high school texts.

The 1952 "PR" Guide is a listing of sources of public-relations reference books, audio-visual aids, pamphlet material, and the names of organizations that are active in the field. It is available for 15c from the Division of Press and Radio Relations of the NEA, Washington 6, D.C.

Environment and Health. Federal Security Agency. 1951. Pp. 152. This review of the environmental health of the times can be used as a textbook in public health. It is available for 75c a copy from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

Study Abroad. Unesco. Vol. IV, 1951-52. New York: Columbia University Press. Pp. 327. $2.00. A listing of fellowships, scholarships, and educational exchange programs.

Loyalty in a Democracy. 1952. Pp. 32. This report may be obtained from the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 E. 38th St., New York 16, N. Y., for 25c.

School Bibliography: Our Forests, Their Use and Conservation. 16 pp. booklet lists a variety of materials available free to schools. **The Story of Pulp and Paper. The Story of Lumber and Allied Products.** 16 pp. illustrated booklets available free to schools. American Forest Products Industries, 1319 Eighteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Audio-Visuals

Johnny. A 16-frame filmstrip of a youngster's experience with polio. Intended for the primary grades. **What to Do About Polio.** A leaflet for physical education directors. The filmstrip may be borrowed, and the leaflet may be obtained free from the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York 5, N. Y.

Motion Pictures on Child Life. A list of 450 films on the social, medical, mental, and developmental aspects of child life prepared by the Children's Bureau. Available for 40c from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

Pageant Magazine. The Perfect Playground. Sept, 32.
Parry, Douglas F. Improving the Emotional Health of Secondary-School Students. Feb, 49.
Pearson, Richard M. A Publisher Examines His Product. Apr, 32.
Pingry, Robert E. Critical Thinking—What Is It? Jan, 5.
Pooley, Robert C. Periodicals in the English Classroom. Sept, 38.
Punke, Harold H. Tell Students Their Intelligence Ratings. Dec, 10.
Putong, Cecilio. Present Trends in Philippine Education. May, 42.

Russell, David H., and Karp, Etta E. The Reading Readiness Program. Oct, 45.
Ryden, A. H. Including Parents in Counseling. Sept, 36.

Satlow, I. David. A Working Philosophy of Business Education. Sept, 45.
Scates, Douglas E. The Stress and Strains of Teaching: Do We Understand Them? Feb, 4.
Scottish Educational Journal. Education for Productivity. Mar, 36.
Seaman, Everett. Homecoming Days Clear College Haze. Mar, 49.
Selwyn, Amy. No More Homework? Sept, 9.
Semler, Charles A. Intercollegiate Athletics and Secondary Schools. Apr, 18.
Shiebler, Howard A. Half Our Audience Is Walking Out. Oct, 51.
Shores, J. Harlan. A Vicious Practice in Safety Education. Mar, 52.
Shotwell, Louisa R. An Illinois Town Educates Migrant Children—and Itself. Dec, 22.
Smith, William M., Jr. Educate for Family Life Adjustment! Sept, 43.
Snyder, Harold E. Neglected Aspects of International Cultural Relations. Jan, 24.
Spalding, Willard B. The Stereotype of Progressive Education, Feb, 19.
Spencer, Lyle M. Acceleration: Perennial Problem. Feb, 7.
Stanton, Edgar A. Conservation Begins in the Elementary School. May, 48.
State Provisions for Financing Public-School Capital Outlay Programs. Important Issues in Providing State Funds for Public-School Buildings. Apr, 34.
Stimson, G. School Exchanges in Norfolk and Shropshire. Jan, 37.

Taylor, Hugh S. Who Will Be A "Fulbrighter." Feb, 32.
Thayer, V. T. A Crutch for Churches. Apr, 15.
Todd, Lewis Paul. The Teaching of Controversial Issues. Oct, 37.
Tovatt, Anthony L. Diagraming: A Sterile Skill. Apr, 42.
Toy, Henry, Jr. Citizens Committees—A Report to the People from the Director of NCCPS. Mar, 41.
Trow, Wm. Clark. The Social Education of Young Children. Mar, 28.
———. The Public School a Scapegoat? Feb, 40.
Tyler, Ralph W. Research Sheds New Light on the Learning Process. Sept, 22.

Vander Werf, Lester. Texture in the Teaching of English. Feb, 44.
Vars, Gordon F. Problems of a Beginning Core Teacher. Dec, 34.

Weinberg, Meyer. Social Science Discussion and the Tape Recorder. Jan, 30.
Wenner, Frank H. They Voted Thirteen to One. Oct, 34.
Wesley, Edgar B. The Potentialities of World History in a World Society. Oct, 7.
Witty, Paul. Television and the Educative Process. Mar, 6.
Woolever, John D. Science Fiction for Science Students. Apr, 46.
Wright, Grace S. Core Curriculum. May, 8.

Zimmerman, Kent A., and Lewton, Elizabeth. Teacher Personality in School Relationships. Oct, 28.

Educators commend

its unique advantages

Exclusive features of the American Universal "Ten-Twenty" Desk (No. 436) relieve bodily and visual stresses and strains. The improved postural and visual habits lead to easier learning, more effective teaching, better general health.

Acclaimed by educators as "the key to the co-ordinated classroom," the "Ten-Twenty" is the only desk with a top adjustable, easily and quietly, to three approved positions—20°, 10°, and level. Also unique is the automatic fore-and-aft seat adjustment, facilitating focal adjustment to all tasks. Seat swivels 45° either way. One-piece sanitary steel book-box.

American Universal "Ten-Twenty" Desk

FREE BOOKLETS: *"Education Grows" and "The Co-ordinated Classroom"—two informative works on recent educational developments. Write Dept. 8.*

AMERICAN BODIFORM AUDITORIUM CHAIRS

Unequaled for full-upholstered comfort, beauty, durability, acoustical benefit. Available with folding tablet-arm.

American Seating Company

WORLD'S LEADER IN PUBLIC SEATING

Grand Rapids 2, Michigan; Branch Offices and Distributors in Principal Cities

Manufacturers of School, Auditorium, Theatre, Church, Transportation, Stadium Seating, and Folding Chairs

THIS PUBLICATION IS REPRO-
DUCED BY AGREEMENT WITH THE
COPYRIGHT OWNER. EXTENSIVE
DUPLICATION OR RESALE WITH-
OUT PERMISSION IS PROHIBITED.